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ABSTRACT

This monograph deals with the utilization of modern communicational media as aids to instruction and learning in the English classroom and contains studies pointing the way toward expanding student experience through multimedia instruction. Chapters include "Magazines," which presents objectives for magazine study, discusses students' reading interests, and suggests class activities based on magazine study; "Newspapers," which reviews the newspaper reading interests of children and youth and considers objectives and activities for the classroom; "Radio," which analyzes children's listening interests, examines the effects of radio listening on children, and explores useful classroom practices; "Television," which discusses public interest in television, examines finance and programing in commercial television, and considers the effects of television on education; "Recorded Sound Aids," which summarizes the available research, suggesting classroom applications for recorded materials; and "Motion Pictures," which discusses the motion picture as an instructional device and a cultural force. (RB)

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A RESEARCH BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON RESEARCH IN ENGLISH

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
Chapter I.	INTRODUCTION Roy I. Johnson	5
Chapter II.	MAGAZINES John J. DeBoer	7
Chapter III.	NEWSPAPERS John J. DeBoer	26
Chapter IV.	RADIO Lillian R. Novotny	39
Chapter V.	TELEVISION Dallas W. Smythe	47
Chapter VI.	RECORDED SOUND AIDS Pat Killgallon	58
Chapter VII.	MOTION PICTURES Abram W. VanderMeer	69

Introduction

ROY I. JOHNSON[1]

The lag in education has been accounted for in various ways. One explanation lies in the "heritage concept" of education. We are so concerned with the past that we have little time for the study of the present. Another contributing factor is the persistence of organized patterns of learning and established procedures. Thus we commit ourselves, both in subject matter and method, to what *has been*. A practical impediment in the modernization of school programs has been the lack of educational tools adapted to school use. Traditionally *books* have been the tools of teaching and learning. For many years the ringing of the morning school bell was the signal to "take up books"—an expression that still prevails in some sections of the country. Reading and recitation have been, in the main, the ritual of school practice.

But as the problem of pupil learning has become the subject of psychological study, we have accumulated convincing data to show that the *best* learning (that is, learning which lasts and which functions in use) results from active experience, and *varied* experience, rather than from passive assimilation and recitation of fact. This extension of pupil experience has been accomplished in some measure through the use of maps, globes, structural models, and laboratory materials in science. Also, as education has taken cognizance of community problems and community interests, some emancipation from books has been achieved by utilizing community resources as aids to learning. These expansions of the school program are reflections of a broadened concept of education which insists that subject matter must be life-related, that the school must be identified with society instead of divorced from it.

The various chapters of this bulletin deal with the utilization of modern communicational media as aids to instruction and learning. Whether the utilization be in connection with courses in English or other areas of study is not, at the moment, a matter of primary concern. The logical assumption is that in *all* areas learning will be strengthened by intensifying experience and multiplying the media for the communication of thoughts, ideas, and impressions. Since English deals with communicational skills, one might suppose that the English curriculum would be prompt to respond to the social and technological advances in modern communicational practice. But in the past half century, which has been the most productive period in the world's history in science and invention, surprisingly little progress has been made in adapting the products of science to the processes of education. It is true that there is a sparse offering of educational films—sparse in comparison with the total production of films on a commercial basis. Some excellent radio recordings in special fields are available. There is a fairly abundant supply of good music records. Occasional "hook-ups" are reported between the schools and local radio stations. Some colleges and universities have their own broadcasting centers or arrange for "time" with a neighboring station. But many, if not most, of these services are commercial or promotional in nature. They illustrate possibilities rather than perfected programs adapted to specific needs. The showing of a film, for example, is too often an adventure in entertainment (or a "build-up" for the local theater) rather than a planned educational experience.

[1]Professor of Education, the University of Denver.

Planning: here lies the key to better use of instructional materials. And the planning must be of three sorts. First in order is the development of a larger store of appropriate materials adapted to specific needs and purposes. A moving picture which happens to have its setting in Colorado in 1890 is not necessarily a good educational film for a unit of study in Our Western Expansion. Second, there must be planning with respect to the *way* in which the new experience is to be utilized. What preparation is needed? What emphases are to be stressed? What follow-up activities are needed to fix the new learning and relate it to the objectives of the unit? Third, there must be some effective re-planning in connection with the problem of scheduling and distributing in order to bridge the gap between the teacher and potential teaching aids and materials.

A word about the last of these three needs —the problem of distribution. The function of the library has long been recognized as an educational function. In spite of the fact that some librarians still look upon books as something to be guarded rather than used, most library programs (particularly in schools) are service programs. Is it not logical that, as the materials of learning expand, the services and resources of the library should expand? When the tools of learning were restricted to books, the library was largely a "place of books"—with perhaps a few selected magazines and newspapers. But as audio-visual materials are accumulated, they too must be made easily available—with a minimum demand on teacher time and a minimum of delay in supplying the requested materials. Since the library is already a functioning organization, serving the curricular needs of the various departments, it would appear to be the logical administrative unit through which additional aids should be channeled. But whatever the answer may be, it is essential, for timely and effective use, that all types of approved teaching materials (including films, slides, recordings, etc.) be made readily accessible.

The studies reported in this bulletin point the way toward an enlargement of pupil experience through the utilization of such communicational media as newspapers and magazines, film strips and motion pictures, radio, and phonographic transcripoion (or recordings). They will undoubtedly suggest the need for further studies in exploring the possibilities of these media in linking in-school and out-of-school experience. They will also suggest the need of more effective mass planning and mass action, on the part of educational groups, in smoothing the way for wider and wiser use of modern materials and modern technological aids in teaching.

Magazines

JOHN J. DEBOER*

America may be said to be a nation of magazine readers. For every book reader in the United States there are at least two magazine readers. Americans read magazines for amusement, for information, and for inspiration. They turn to magazines for interpretation of the news, for sidelights on interesting characters, for humor, for advice on practical problems, for adventure and excitement, and for personal and religious guidance. Magazines supply readers with fiction, history, political analysis, child psychology, news of sports, hobbies, and scientific developments, suggestions for interior decoration, home building and maintenance, clothing, health care, choice of schools and vacation spots, as well as scores of other types of informational and recreational materials. They present these materials in the form of words, photographs, cartoons, charts and graphs, drawings, and other visual symbols. Magazine communication has become a highly developed art and is today one of the most interesting and effective reflectors of American life.

The 6,000 magazines published in the United States range from lowgrade Comic books, cheap pulp magazines, and lurid adventure magazines to such sophisticated journals as *The New Yorker*, quality magazines like *Harper's*, and learned periodicals like the *Journal of Genetic Psychology*. Within a given field of interest, they range from such an excellent popular magazine as *Science News Letter*, to the *Scientific American*, to the highly technical magazine *Science*. There is a magazine for every level of reading ability, interest, taste, and political opinion.

How well prepared is the American public to read magazines with intelligence and pleasure? Generally speaking, the American school has been much more interested in books than in magazines as media of communication. As in so many other ways, the school has been slow to adjust itself to this development in American life. Clearly in the field of magazines the school has both a great opportunity and a great challenge.

Objectives for Magazine Study

The study of magazines in school should be guided by a number of clear objectives. Mere reading of magazines at home or in school cannot in itself result in the improvement of the quality of magazine reading by American youth. The following objectives are suggested as possible direction for educational efforts in this field:

1. *The Expansion of Magazine Reading Interests.*

One of the fundamental purposes of the secondary schools is to prepare young people for the constructive use of leisure time. The magazine offers a wide variety of opportunities to adolescents, not only for the pursuit of their present interests, but also for the development of many worthwhile new interests. Boys and girls whose tastes in magazines are limited to the pulps, adventure magazines, or one or two popular magazines can learn to enjoy many other periodicals which will open new fields of interest and activity to them. Hobbies, sports, athletics, fashions, public affairs, science and nature, humor, education and child care, occupations, worthwhile fiction, and many other areas of interest are represented by many magazines of which the typical child is unaware and which are usually not available at the commercial magazine stand. It is the responsibility of the school to make these available to him and to encourage him to explore them.

*Professor of Education, the University of Illinois. Numbers in parentheses refer to references at the end of this article.

2. *The Improvement of Reading Tastes.*

We have frequently heard the complaint that public tastes in books, radio and television programs, photoplays, and magazines are deplorably low. No doubt this complaint is justified. But tastes, like other human characteristics, are in large part learned, and it is possible for the home, the church, the school, and other social institutions to do something about them. Teachers can, by creating a favorable environment and providing happy experiences with high grade magazines, substantially improve young people's tastes in magazine reading.

3. *The Development of Independent Judgment in Magazine Reading.*

In a democratic society, ultimate decisions about public policy must be made by the people. It is of the greatest importance, therefore, that the people have access to as many sources of information and opinion as possible, and that they learn to make up their own minds after careful examination of many points of view. When young people read magazines which reflect only one basic view respecting public policy, they are likely to be influenced by the particular person, persons, or agencies which publish the magazines. For this reason, high school youth should be introduced to many viewpoints in the magazine world. They should learn how to compare these viewpoints, to recognize the bias of the writers, and to make up their own minds independently.

Magazines and the School

In undertaking the task of teaching children to read, the school has traditionally placed its chief reliance upon the medium of books. Actually, newspapers and magazines are read much more widely and regularly than books (97). To help young people to live intelligently in a world of newspapers and magazines would seem to be a primary obligation of the school. Familiarity with and interest in a wide range of magazines, some knowledge of editorial policies and practices, the ability to make wise selection among magazines, and the development of powers of critical discrimination in the reading of magazine materials are among the more important objectives of instruction in this area.

The Magazine As a Mass Medium

A brief look at some magazine statistics will suffice to demonstrate the importance of magazines as a concern of the school. Approximately 6,000 magazines, with a total circulation of 240,000,000, are published in the United States (9). According to one estimate (64), the average American family spends $7.42 per year for magazines. The Comic magazines alone account for a circulation of at least 40,000,000 (1). One publisher of a group of magazines reports an annual gross revenue of more than $37,000,000 (22). A leading picture magazine published $57,000,000 worth of advertising in nine months of the year 1947 (28).

These figures suggest the significance of the term "mass media" as applied to modern vehicles of communication. They also suggest a new problem in the development of democratic institutions. When a single voice can be heard at one time by 90,000,000 people via the radio, and a single magazine is read by an estimated 25,000,000 people, the question of who controls these opinion-forming agencies, and in whose interest, assumes enormous significance in a society in which ultimate decisions must be made by the people themselves. The question of control vitally affects also the nature of the educational problem with respect to magazine reading.

Control of the Mass Media

Eleven publishers control roughly one-fourth of the total magazine circulation, with 17 magazines out of the total of 6,000. They are DeWitt Wallace (of *Reader's Digest*), Curtis Publishing Company, Crowell Publishing Company, Hearst Publications, Coronet-Esquire, Inc., J. Howard Pew, Time, Inc., Gardiner

Cowles, Atlas Corporation, T. M. Meuller, and McCall, Inc. Five publishers—Curtis, Time, Crowell, Hearst, and McCall—with ten magazines, represent one-fifth of the total magazine circulation in the United States.

To what extent does this concentration of control tend to guide public opinion in specific directions? Do the publishers named represent a sufficient diversity of viewpoint to enable American readers to form independent opinions? Do these publishers, consciously or unconsciously, serve any special interests by means of their publication?

As the Hutchins Commission on a Free and Responsible Press recently pointed out, "The agencies of mass communications are big business" (23). It is inevitable—and legitimate—that the editorial policies of these periodicals should be influenced in varying degrees by the economic interests of the publishers. Nevertheless, if a majority of readers are dependent upon media which are under minority control and reflect a single editorial coloration, the school clearly has the obligation to broaden the base upon which the majority forms its opinions. Moreover, in view of the tremendous present circulation of such magazines as the *Reader's Digest, Life,* and *Time,* it is questionable whether the school, in requiring the reading of these magazines to the exclusion of others, is justified in contributing to the further extension of this circulation and in further limiting the range of opinion with which young people have contact. Exclusive subscriptions by classes to a single mass magazine can perhaps be justifiably interpreted as unintentional propagandizing in behalf of a single viewpoint on human affairs.

Intellectual Independence And Magazine Study

A writer in a recent issue of the North Central Association *Quarterly* (113), recognizing the urgent need for magazine study in the schools, recommends that a semester's work in high schools be devoted to magazines and other mass media. There is evidence that schools are increasingly giving attention to this problem. However, such study will have relatively little value if it is confined to the purely mechanical aspects of magazine production. It should be based upon clearly defined objectives appropriate to the social situation. Independence of any one magazine or group of magazines in the formation of opinion on social, political, economic, and personal questions should certainly be one such objective. Such independence may be achieved not merely by the critical analysis of the large-circulation media, but by comparisons with the numerous excellent magazines of more limited circulation.

Elementary School Children's Interests in Magazines

What magazines are read by children and youth? A great many studies of magazine reading interests have been reported. The reading of magazines appears to be popular at all grade levels (123). At the early elementary level boys and girls tend to prefer the same magazines, while the differences in interests between boys and girls increase markedly in the upper grades 5-8 (13). At least one investigator found that magazines are read in larger quantity by boys than by girls, that boys show more interest in current events and show greater independence in their selection and reading of magazines (13). As one might expect, many investigators report that bright children read more and better magazines than the slow learners do (54, 26, 25, 61). Middlegrade children of limited reading ability can become interested in such magazines as *Popular Science* and *Popular Mechanics* (50). There is a close correlation between socio-economic status and number and quality of magazines read (69).

What magazines are read by elementary school children? *Child Life* appears to be very popular in the elementary school, particularly

in the early grades. *Boys' Life, American Boy, Open Road, Boy Scout, Calling All Girls, American Girl, Miss America, Playmate, Popular Mechanics, Popular Science, Youth's Companion, Jack and Jill, Children's Activities,* and *American Junior Red Cross News* are frequently mentioned in lists of popular magazines for elementary school children.

Older elementary school children exhibit interest in several adult magazines. *Life, Reader's Digest, National Geographic,* and *Collier's,* according to some studies, are widely read by seventh and eighth grade children. Huber and Chapellear (69), comparing the magazine reading of bright and dull children, found that the former preferred such periodicals as *Radio News, Scientific American,* and *American Magazine,* while the latter chose such titles as *Photoplay, Film Fun, True Story,* and *Argosy.*

The circulation figures of the children's magazines do not always conform to the judgments of librarians and teachers as to their relative quality. Although Witty reports (120) that children show a keen interest in such magazines as *My Weekly Reader, Current Events, Jack and Jill, Story Parade, Children's Activities,* and *Jr. Language and Arts,* not all of these attain the wide audiences enjoyed by many periodicals not so highly recommended. In a study directed by the writer, Amar recently secured the ratings of 50 leading children's magazines by representative librarians from all parts of the country (4). The librarians ranked the list in the order of their choices as to format, general literary quality, popularity with children, and the extent to which the magazines promote democratic ideals. The magazines with the number of first choices are given in Table I.

High School and College Students' Interests in Magazines

At the junior and senior high school level, magazines continue to be popular with boys and girls. Brink estimates that high school youth read from two to three magazines regularly (18). Ells (35), and Byrne and Henman (20) report similar figures for junior college students, while Witty and Coomer (121) found that they read four magazines (other than comics) regularly, and that the average remained consistent from grade to grade. The students' rankings of the fifteen magazines read most frequently in the Witty-Coomer study are given in Table II. In general, the findings of this study with respect to the magazines preferred are confirmed by numerous other studies e.g., thsoe of Donahue (29), Elden and Carpenter (37), and Leary (70). One study (92) reported that the average high school student spends 2.85 hours per week in reading magazines.

TABLE I
LIBRARIANS' RATINGS OF CHILDREN'S MAGAZINES[1]

Magazine	First Choices
Story Parade	43
National Geographic	39
Popular Mechanics	33
American Girl	28
Child Life	27
Boys' Life	27
Popular Science Monthly	18
Nature	14
Junior Scholastic	14
Children's Activities	13
St. Nicholas	11
Jack and Jill	10
Jr. Natural History Magazine	9
Model Airplane News	8
My Weekly Reader	7
The Open Road for Boys	6
Current Events	6
Boy Life	5
Science News-Letter	4
Jr. American Red Cross News	3
Jr. American Red Cross Journal	3
Young America	2
Calling All Girls	2

[1]From "Children's Magazines Today," by Wesley Francis Amar. *Elementary English Review* XX No. 7 (November, 1943), page 288.

TABLE II

RANKINGS GIVEN BY HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS TO THE FIFTEEN MAGAZINES, OTHER THAN COMICS, READ MOST FREQUENTLY BY BOTH SEXES

(From Witty-Coomer)

Name of Magazine	Rank - Both Sexes
Reader's Digest	1.0
Life	2.0
Saturday Evening Post	3.0
Ladies' Home Journal	4.0
McCall's Magazine	5.0
Good Housekeeping	6.0
Collier's	7.0
National Geographic	8.0
Scholastic	9.0
Popular Science	10.0
Time	11.0
Popular Mechanics	12.0
American Magazine	13.0
Esquire	14.0
Look	15.5

Eells (35), in a study of the magazine reading interests of over 17,000 high school pupils, found that the three magazines ranking highest were *Reader's Digest*, *Life*, and *American Magazine*. These three magazines, in addition to *Time* and *Collier's* were common to the lists of both boys' and girls' preferences. Other magazines on the girls' list were chiefly women's magazines, while those on the boys' list showed greater variety.

In a recent careful study of high school students in reading, motion pictures, and radio, Sterner (107) reported that the chief interests of high school pupils are adventure, humor, and love, and that the choice of medium is much less significant than the choice of theme. In Byrne and Henmon's study (20), women's monthly magazines appealed most to girl seniors in high school, while monthly and weekly fiction magazines and quality magazines were read by a substantial number of both boys and girls in the senior year of high school. Girls turn early to adult magazines, and by age 15 tend to be avid readers of women's magazines and fiction magazines, according to Walter (115).

As in the case of elementary school pupils, the quality of adults' magazine reading varies with reading ability (19). Punke (90) found that high school boys prefer the themes of adventure, sports, and mechanics, while girls like romance, society, and fashions. He also noted a sharp decline of interest on the part of boys in boys' magazines in the course of the ninth grade. According to this study, high schools should apparently continue to provide suitable boys' magazines for pupils in the first semester of the ninth year. Many studies emphasize the close relationship between young people's interests in magazines and the availability of certain magazines (98).

In a study of the sources of high school pupils' information on current affairs, Lemmers (72) found that 61 per cent of the pupils depended upon radio first for their knowledge of current events, 31 per cent depended upon newspapers first, and only 8 per cent depended primarily on the news weekly.

The interests of junior high school pupils in magazines are reported by Ashby (8), who made a survey of the reading habits of 530 boys and girls in the Dennis Junior High School, Richmond, Indiana. Ashby lists the following types of periodicals as favorites among the young people whom he interrogated:

TABLE III

FAVORITE MAGAZINES OF PUPILS IN THE DENNIS JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, RICHMOND, INDIANA

Boys

1. Newspapers
2. Comics
3. Popular Science
4. Boys' Life
5. Popular Mechanics

6. Open Road for Boys
7. Life
8. Collier's
9. America's Boy
10. Liberty

Girls

1. Newspapers
2. American Girl
3. Life
4. Comics
5. Look
6. Good Housekeeping
7. Collier's
8. American Magazine
9. Weekly News Review
10. Ladies Home Journal

The Use of Magazines in Elementary Schools

The literature on the use of magazines in schools contains little evidence of systematic activity on the part of elementary schools in the field of magazine reading. Many elementary schools, however, provide copies of *Child Life, Junior Scholastic, Story Parade,* and other children's magazines in the school library. The Madison (Wisconsin) Public Schools have published an excellent pamphlet entitled, *Magazines for Elementary Schools* (78), containing a unit on magazines for second grade, another for the intermediate grades, and a third for the fifth grade. The pamphlet also lists, with evaluative annotations, 63 magazines recommended for children's use. The titles of the magazines are given in Table IV.

The units described in the Madison pamphlet suggest such activities as the following:

Raising questions by pupils:

1) What magazines are easy enough for us to read?
2) What stories are easy enough for us to read?
3) Where can we find the names of stories most quickly?
4) How do we know what the stories are about?
5) Can we find stories or pictures about the topic we are studying in school?
6) How much do we need to pay a year for a good magazine?
7) How can we interest mother and father in getting the magazine for us?

Bringing magazines of interest to school.

Looking for material on topics to be studied.

Looking for pictures to interest other children.

Exploring a magazine

Reading stories children think will be interesting.

Showing completion of activity after child has read and followed directions in the activity section of magazine.

Reading poems of interest to class.

Surveying material to be found in magazines.

Reading to find material for a given topic

Telling stories, reading stories, dramatizing stories

Discussing how to make objects of interest to child or group of children

Reading poems individually or in groups

Writing original poems and stories

Reading for fun

for a class magazine

Looking at pictures

Enjoying poems and pictures

Drawing and constructing for fun

Finding pictures for group booklet

Finding stories and poems of interest on topics being studied.

Painting and making things

Keeping a scrapbook

Preparing a class magazine

Experimentation

- Carrying through to completion of science experiments presented in magazine
- Sharing stories and poems written by the children
- Presenting a play or dramatization of story found in a magazine
- Making a class movie or frieze

Organizing and evaluating magazine unit

- What part of the unit was of most use to us?
- What do we like about the work done by group?
- What conclusions have we made concerning the questions we wanted answered?
- Preparing a magazine display
- Hearing talk on magazines by school librarian
- Listening to talk by Uncle Ray on the publishing of a magazine
- Making a list of different interests to be found in magazines (Use Table of Contents)
- Browsing among magazines
- Looking at magazine pictures
- Talking about interesting stories and articles
- Classifying stories as to whether they are fiction or true accounts
- Finding stories about people of other lands, other religions, of immigrants, etc. (Inter-cultural relations)
- Preparing classification chart of magazines, using following headings:
  1) Price (by month and year)
  2) Frequency of issue
  3) Size
  4) Illustrations (many, few)
  5) Advertisements (many, few, none)
  6) Size of print (fine, medium, large)
  7) Quality of paper (poor, fair, good, excellent)
  8) Number of pages
- Comparing current issue of a certain magazine with an old copy to note change
- Listing magazines that are purely recreational
- Listing magazines that are published primarily for informational purposes
- Listing articles from magazines that are pertinent to units for grade
- Listing ways in which children's magazines are similar to, or different from adult magazines
- Listing magazines that further interest in any hobbies
- Choosing a magazine, and giving following information:
  1) Why you liked or disliked magazine
  2) Whether it is too old or too young or "just right"
  3) Whether it is worth the price
  4) What feature in the magazine you enjoyed most
  5) Whether girls or boys would enjoy the magazine most
  6) Whether it is worth ordering for school or classroom library
- Finding out how much you would save by buying any particular magazine by the year, rather than by the month; in groups, rather than individually
- Comparing accounts of same article by different authors
- Writing poems or stories and sending to contributors' column
- Finding answers to specific questions

Reporting to class on interesting article

Having a "Magazine Hour," for presenting original poems, stories, or any other material developed during study of unit

Visiting a printing shop to see types of machines

Posting references to interesting magazine articles on the bulletin board

Preparing a class magazine containing a variety of features

Designing the cover, sectional headings, etc., for the magazine

Preparing advertisements related to class interests

Evaluation

Devices

a. Observation by teacher

b. Checking of pupil's magazine-reading by

1) Questionnaire

2) Class discussion and reports

3) Informal tests

4) Conference with librarian

Evaluation questions

a. Are pupils increasingly interested in reading better magazines?

b. Do they show less interest in Comics?

c. Have they improved in techniques for research reading?

d. Do they show keener observation of material contained in magazines?

e. Have they grown in creative expression?

f. Do they find increased enjoyment in reading magazines?

g. Do they show increased interest in hobbies?

h. Are they actively interested in the magazines ordered for the school?

i. Do they sometimes compare the worth of one magazine with another?

The objectives listed in the units stressed particularly the importance of developing powers of critical discrimination in the reading of magazines, widening the range of children's interests, and building a background of significant factual information.

That elementary schools can succeed in improving the magazine reading habits of children was indicated in a report by Norris (86), who compared the magazine reading of children in a platoon school and in a non-platoon school. She concluded that "the desire to become interested in a variety of magazines can be brought about with children in the early readers." Similar results were obtained by Erickson (38), who made numerous desirable magazines available to a group of sixth-grade children.

TABLE IV MAGAZINES RECOMMENDED FOR ELEMENTARY GRADES
(Curriculum Department, Madison Public Schools)

Name of Magazine	Age Level	Price	Issued
Aviation			
Flying	10 and up	$3.00	Monthly
Model Airplane News	7 - 16	2.50	Monthly
Skyways	12 and up	3.00	Monthly
Handcraft			
Children's Activities	5 - 12		
Popular Mechanics	6 - 60		
Popular Science Monthly	12 - 18		

Local Interest			
Badger History with Junior Badger History	10 - 16	1.50	Monthly
Crusader	12 and up	.50	Monthly
Junior Crusader	8 - 12	.50	Monthly
Wisconsin Bulletin of Conservation	12 and up	free	Monthly
Modern Problems			
Building America	10 - 18	2.25	Monthly
National Humane Review	9 - 15	1.00	Monthly
Soil Conservation	12 and up	1.00	Monthly
Young Crusader	7 - 12	.50	Monthly
Nature, Science, and Health			
American Forests	12 and up	5.00	Monthly
Arizona Highways	10 and up	3.00	Monthly
Audubon Magazine	11 and up	2.50	Bi-Monthly
Canadian Nature	9 - 15	1.25	Bi-Monthly
Earth and Sky	10 - 12	.75	Semi-Monthly
Highlights for Children	5 - 12	4.00	Monthly
Hygeia	12 and up	2.50	Monthly.
Junior Natural History	10 - 14	1.50	Monthly
Nature Magazine	10 and up	4.00	Monthly
Science News Letter	12 - 18	5.50	Weekly
Special Interests			
American Jr. Red Cross Journal	12 - 18	1.00	Monthly
American Jr. Red Cross News	7 - 14	$0.50	Monthly
American Photography	12 and up	2.50	Monthly
Asia Calling	10 - 18	2.00	Monthly
Better Homes and Gardens	12 and up	2.50	Monthly
Horn Book	12 and up	3.00	Bi-Monthly
Inter-American	12 and up	3.00	Monthly
Jr. Language and Arts	5 - 14	5.00	Monthly
Junior Reviewers	4 - 16	2.75	Bi-Monthly
Plays	11 - 16	3.00	Monthly
Popular Photography	12 and up	4.00	Monthly
Radio and Television News	12 and up	4.00	Monthly
Stamps	13 and up	2.00	Monthly
True Comics	9 - 14	1.00	Monthly
United Nations World	12 and up	4.00	Monthly
U. S. Camera Magazine	12 and up	1.75	Monthly
Young Wings	7 - 16	.50	Monthly
Story Magazines			
American Girl	12 - 16	2.00	Monthly
Boy's Life	12 - 18	2.50	Monthly
Child Life	Pre-School	3.00	Monthly

Children's Play Mate	4 - 12	2.50	Monthly
Collins Magazine	10 - 14	4.50	Monthly
Jack and Jill	6 - 12	2.50	Monthly
Open Road for Boys	12 - 15	2.00	Monthly
Story Parade	9 - 15	3.00	Monthly
Uncle Ray's Magazine	9 - 15	2.50	Monthly
Wee Wisdom	6 - 11	1.00	Monthly
World Youth	12 - 15	2.50	Monthly
Travel Magazines			
Geographic School Bulletin	12 - 15	.50	Weekly
Latin American Junior Review	12 - 16	1.00	Monthly
National Geographic	10 and up	5.00	Monthly
Travel	12 and up	4.50	Monthly
Current Events			
Current Events	10 to 15	1.20	Weekly
Junior Scholastic	12 - 15	.90	Weekly
My Weekly Reader	5 - 12	.80	Weekly
Newsweek	12 and up	6.50	Weekly
Pathfinder	12 and up	2.00	Semi-Monthly
World Topics Quarterly	12 and up	1.50	Quarterly
Young America	7 - 15	.60	Weekly

Magazines for Elementary Schools provides information also concerning addresses of the magazines listed, as well as amount of advertising and illustrations in each.

The Use of Magazines in Secondary Schools

As early as 1935, Bessey (15) discovered a widespread interest among teachers of English in the use of magazines in school. Her committee reported that at that time there was no one magazine that was ideally suited to the classroom, and that the greatest stumbling-blocks to comprehension and pleasure in reading magazine literature were the difficult vocabulary which characterized many of the articles and the fact that frequently the subject matter was remote from the experience of adolescents and frequently inappropriate in theme for class discussion.

If Miss Bessey's committee were to report today, it would probably modify its conclusions in certain particulars. Magazines like *Reader's Digest, Coronet, Scholastic,* and others have made great effort to adapt the vocabulary level of their articles to readers of average reading ability, and have supplied teaching aids designed to make the respective periodicals more useful to teachers. However, the committee's general conclusion that no one magazine is ideally suited to classroom use will continue to be valid so long as the element of editorial bias cannot be completely eliminated from the content of any mass publication.

An optimistic note was struck by La Brant and Heller (66) in their report of a study, made in 1936, of the magazine reading interests of 215 pupils in grades VII - XII. Their findings revealed a breadth of interest at all levels and a healthy and growing interest in desirable magazines. They expressed the belief that the problem of teaching pupils to read good magazines lies in making these magazines

available in quantity, in providing situations where they may be read profitably, and in allowing leisure for their use. The study provides encouraging evidence that pupils' levels of discrimination can be raised when the school makes efforts toward that end. A more recent study by Mallon (80), however, seems to indicate that "there appears to be little solid conviction among schools concerning the use of perodicals and their place in the school program." Mallon conducted a survey throughout the country to find out the amount spent for periodicals, the periodicals actually taken, and the names of the magazines bound. He found that "policies with reference to provision of periodicals are diverse in the extreme and in every measurable detail."

The National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Research (Dora V. Smith, chairman) confirmed in its report (84) in 1935 the failure of schools generally to give adequate attention to the development of standards for the reading of magazines and newspapers. Similar conclusions were reached by Smith (103) in her survey of English instruction in New York schools, in which she reported that a wide variety of magazines were read by more than half the pupils with little influence from the school or library.

Class Activities in Magazine Study

A number of articles published in the *English Journal* have described units in the study of magazines in high school classes. One teacher (39) followed the study of a short story anthology with an examination of stories in the pulp magazines. Pupils brought to class pulp stories they liked to read and evaluated them according to standards set up in class and others set up by critics of the short story. Another teacher (31) uses magazines for supplementary reading, requiring pupils to examine them for various types of literary selections. Carney (21) described in detail a unit in which the pupils in an English class made a survey of the reading habits of the community, while pupils in a social studies class studied the newspaper and magazine reading of the country as a whole and its probable effect upon national thinking. Comparisons were made between the two studies and the results presented in assembly and P. T. A. programs.

In a ninth grade class, a teacher (71) discovered that Comic books ranked first among the pupils' preferred magazines. She requested the class to select magazines for the classroom library, and in their attempt to secure the best values for the funds available, pupils read many magazines. The teacher asserts that as a result of this experience pupils read fewer pulp and comic magazines.

Another effort to develop critical judgments in magazine reading was reported by Glenn (47). Pupils were asked to list the magazines they had read or were familiar with. The class then discussed the relative merits of these magazines, care being taken at the outset not to brand any of them inferior. Gradually standards of judgment were formed which were finally placed in outline form on the blackboard. Each pupil then made a detailed report of at least one of the magazines, measuring it in the light of the standards established by the class. Similar units were reported by Ronney (94) and Mann (81).

Barnes (12), in an earlier experiment with high school pupils, found that through the critical study of magazines pupils' tastes were materially elevated.

Class activities designed to improve the capacity of boys and girls to read magazines with discrimination are described in numerous other sources (3, 41, 93, 94, 95, 102, 106, 111, 126, 128). One class built a representative collection of magazines by borrowing and purchasing copies. After study of the magazines, such questions as the following were discussed:

If you could have just one magazine in your home, which one would you choose? Why?

How would you spend a budget of $15 for magazines for a family of five for one year?

Which magazines are edited by women?

Which companies publish the greatest number of magazines?

If you were editing a magazine what would be your chief interests and duties?

What are the chief differences between the "slick" and the "pulp" magazines?

Another teacher encouraged students to bring magazines to class and provided opportunity for discussing the contents. He called upon the members of the class to consider the reputation of the author and the magazine as well as the publisher and the sponsor in evaluating the contents. A fourth year English class formed a club for the study of current periodicals. Two periods were spent in general reading. In the discussions that followed, the students' interests were classified under four or five major headings, from which each student chose one for special study. The students then formed groups and planned programs presenting the findings of their reading. Finally they wrote summaries of their findings, answering particularly the following questions:

1. What magazines I read and what types of articles they contain.

2. What magazines I like best and why I like them.

3. What I learned from the magazine club.

4. What I should like to have done in the club if we had had more time.

In another class the students selected a list of nine magazines for class subscription. The magazines were available to students for home reading but returned to school once a month for directed reading. Articles which students read were listed, with publication facts, in the students' individual reading records.

A weekly sequence of activities was based on magazine study in a large California junior high school. On Monday the students made a free selection of articles from a collection of magazines, keeping a record of author, title, publication facts, and subject. Tuesdays were devoted to the writing of letters to the teacher, to members of other English classes, to subscription agencies, to editors, to advertisers. Oral reports on the reading occupied the Wednesday meetings. Spelling and usage skills, based on oral and written work, were considered on Thursday. Fridays were devoted to free reading of books and to book talks.

Posters, articles recommending certain magazines, letters to editors of magazines, and original magazines written by the students are examples of other activities carried on by classes in English. Standards of selection of magazines and types of audiences to which the various periodicals are addressed are studied in a number of high school classes.

The Comic Magazines

The popularity of Comic magazines among both children and adults has been widely noted. In a study of 950 junior high school students, Nasser (83) found that the most widely read classification of magazines was the Comics group (22 per cent of all magazine reading). In his study, however, as in others (notably Ashby's (8), the reading of comic magazines appears to decline during the junior high school years. Yuill (127) reports the results of a circulation survey made in 1943 by the Market Research Corporation of America, which revealed that Comic book readers included an equal proportion of elementary and high school graduates, and that college graduates accounted for only slightly less then one third of the total group. Commenting on some of the best-selling Comics—*Batman, Superman, Action, True, Calling All Girls, Captain Marvel, Captain Midnight, Famous Funnies,* and *Magic Comics*—she expresses the conviction that some of the comics are "growing up," that they are presenting good stories, often illustrating cur-

rent social problems and participating in campaigns in the public interest, with a medium the masses will accept. She finds in the comics an educational weapon which we should not be afraid to use.

Frank (42) points out that Comics are filling a need in children's lives unsatisfied by real life—for fantasy, adventure, and identification with heroes. She believes that most Comic books are not harmful, and that they may be used as ladders to other books and as keys to children's interests. She warns that overindulgence in Comics may be symbolic of an unsatisfied need in a child's life.

Arbuthnot (6), after commenting upon the phenomenal sale of Comic magazines and the fact that "young America is reading the Comics and liking them," declares there is probably little cause to worry about children and their Comic strips as long as they are also enjoying good books. Her judgment would seem to be confirmed by a study by Heisler (52), who compared pupils who read Comics to excess and those who did not indulge in such reading. Heisler considered mental age, educational achievement, socio-economic status, social adjustment, and personal adjustment in his comparisons. He found no significant differences between the two groups. He pointed out that if significant personality differences were ultimately discovered, it would still be necessary to determine whether maladjusted children preferred to read Comic books, or whether the Comic books caused the maladjustment.

Spezel (108) failed to find any relationship between the reading of Comic books and vocabulary growth. Her findings, which suggest that readers of Comic magazines do not suffer losses or achieve unusual gains in reading vocabulary seem to be confirmed by Thorndike (112), who analyzed the vocabulary of *Superman*, Nos. 9 and 10, *Batman*, No. 6, and *Detective Comics*, No. 53. He found that each contained about 1,000 words other than those falling in the commonest 1,000 of the Thorndike Word List. The reading difficulty of the material, as estimated by the Lorge formula, was at the fifth and sixth grade level. Because of the vocabulary range, Thorndike concluded that the Comics do provide a substantial amount of reading experience for upper grade and junior high school pupils.

The well-known fact that the legibility of reading material in the Comic magazines could be greatly improved is further confirmed by a study conducted by Luckiesh and Moss (75), in 1942.

Gesell and Ilg report that children's love for Comic books, beginning as early as age seven, is at its peak at ages eight and nine, and begins to wane after age nine (46). A seven year old, according to these writers, may enjoy a children's magazine which suggests activities which he can carry out (122). The eight year old will enjoy looking into adult magazines, and this interest will increase on to his ninth year (124).

Witty and Coomer, on the other hand, after a study of reading interests of 500 high school students, found that Comic *strips* attained high favor in the primary grades and continued to be very popular throughout the middle and upper grades. A slight decrease in interest in Comic *books* was noted at the junior high school level and a marked decrease in the four years of senior high school. Nevertheless, Comic books continued to hold high rank even in a high school rich in opportunities and motivation for wide reading . . . indeed, the authors of the report estimate that they constitute one fourth of the total number of magazines read in high schools.

Witty and Moore (124) found that Negro children in the middle grades read, on the average, eight Comic magazines regularly, four often; and five, sometimes. These averages are distinctly higher than those found for white children in the middle grades. The writers be-

lieve that one step in the solution of the problem is the provision of good books which are rich in the elements of action, surprise, adventure, and excitement.

Witty, Smith, and Coomer (80), after studying the interests in Comic magazines on the part of 224 seventh and eighth grade children, concluded that reading the Comics represents a general interest, which in grades IV to VIII is relatively uninfluenced by differences in age or grade, sex, or locality. They suggest that the solution is to be found, not in suppression, but in surrounding children with a variety of good literary sources which are rich in the elements of action, surprise, adventure, and excitement.

Of particular interest is the conclusion of Witty (81) after a study of 2500 pupils in grades IV to VI, that there is little difference in the amount and character of the general reading of those who read Comics extensively and those who seldom read them.

Members of the magazine committee of the Madison, Wis., schools evaluated a sampling of Comic magazines. After listing the advantages and disadvantages of the Comic magazines, they classified a number of them according to the nature of the contents. Their list follows:

Nature of Content in a Sampling of Comic Magazines

Informational

True Comics	Real Life Comics
Hop Harrigan	Picture Stories of the Bible
Contact (Aviation)	Calling All Girls
Classic Comics	

Entertaining

Bugs Bunny	Little Acorns
Magic Comics	Tip-Top
Ha Ha Comics	Henry
Jack in the Box	Walt Disney Comics
Tick Tock Tales	Coo Coo Comics
Fairy Tale Parade	Uncle Remus and his Tales of Br'er Rabbit
Our Gang	
Ribtickler	Popeye
Buzzy	Raggedy Ann and Andy
Oswald the Rabbit	Krazy Komics
Funny Stuff	Santa Claus Funnies
Izzy and Dizzy	Looney Tunes
A Ride to Animal Town	Terry Toons
	Felix, the Cat
Dagwood	New Funnies
Mickey Mouse	Happy Comics
Jiggs	Animal Comics
Bringing Up Father	Goofy Comics

Super-Thrilling

Whiz-Comics	Captain Marvel
Terry and the Pirates	Slam Bang
Captain Midnight	Sky Man
Superman	Flash
The Green Hornet	Tom Mix
Dick Tracy	Rodeo Ryan
Jack Armstrong	Buster Brown Comic Book
The Lone Ranger	
Sky King	Andy Panda
Prize Comics	Red Ryder
Action Comics	Kerry Drake

Undesirable

Nyoka — The Jungle Girl	Red Dragon
Blue Bolt	Dare Devil
Land of the Lost	Bat Man
Suzie	Wonder Comics
Famous Crimes	Buck Rogers
Fight Comics	Outlaws
Sensation Comics	

Following the principle advanced by Witty and others, the Children's Books Committee of the Madison (Wis.) Public Schools published a 1948-9 booklist entitled *Fun for All and All for Fun: Books for "Comics Fans."* The list is annotated and classified by age groups.

The studies that have been reported in general indicate that Comic books do not retard growth in reading ability or contribute to personality maladjustment, and that there is little difference in the amount and character of the

[1]Magazine Committee of the Madison Public Schools, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-5.

general reading done by those who read Comics extensively and those who do not read them at all. These studies do not, however, reveal what effect the stereotypes and assumptions present in the narratives of the Comics magazines, have upon the attitudes of children. It would seem to be desirable not only to supply children and young people with excellent reading materials capable of competing with the Comics, but to make the Comics the subject of critical analysis and evaluation in class particularly from the point of view of their characterizations of human beings.

The fact that such critical analysis can be carried on successfully in the intermediate grades is suggested by Deneeke (82), who conducted a discussion of Comics magazines with her fifth grade class. Children brought their Comic magazines to class and classified them as "good" and "bad." They exchanged the "good" magazines, using them as material for oral reports. Brief programs were presented to other grades and copies of the magazines exhibited. By these means a demand for better Comic magazines was created.

General Conclusions

1. The mass circulation magazines are increasingly controlled by a limited number of publishing interests, and should therefore be abundantly supplemented by limited circulation magazines, in order that boys and girls may become familiar with a variety of viewpoints on current affairs.

2. The reading of magazines is popular at all age levels.

3. Sex differences in reading interests in the field of magazines begin to appear at the intermediate grade level. Boys tend to show greater interest in current events, and apparently exercise greater independence in the selection and reading of magazines. At the high school level, *Reader's Digest*, *Life*, and *American Magazine* are preferred by both boys and girls, but girls show strong interest in women's magazines while boys tend to show greater variety in their tastes in magazines.

4. Bright children read more and better magazines than slow learners do.

5. Children of limited reading ability can be taught to become genuinely interested in magazines which are educationally acceptable.

6. While a growing number of children exhibit interest in such periodicals as *My Weekly Reader*, *Current Events*, *Jack and Jill*, *Story Parade*, *Children's Activities*, and *Jr. Language and Arts*, these magazines enjoy a much smaller circulation than those of others not so highly recommended.

7. Estimates as to the number of magazines read regularly by high school youth vary from two to four. The average weekly time devoted to magazine reading (other than Comics) by high school students appears to exceed two hours.

8. Students are interested primarily in the themes of adventure, humor, and love, and the theme is of greater significance than the medium—radio, motion picture, or the printed page. Other themes of interest are mechanics in the case of boys, and society and fashions in the case of girls.

9. Young people's interests in magazines are determined in large part by the accessibility of magazines.

10. High school youngsters depend much more heavily upon the radio and newspaper than on the newsmagazine for their knowledge of current events.

11. Elementary schools generally make little effort to guide the magazine reading of boys and girls, although excellent children's magazines are found in many elementary school libraries. Some schools, such as the Madison Public Schools and Long Island City High School (under the direction of Dr. Joseph P. Mersand, chairman of the English Department), and numerous others, are conducting

systematic instruction in the reading of magazines.

12. One of the obstacles to the development of keen reading interests in magazines is the difficulty of the vocabulary and the remoteness of the subject matter from the experience of children and youth.

13. No single magazine is suitable for exclusive use because of the editorial bias present in all magazines within the comprehension range of pupils.

14. When magazines are made available in quantity to children and youth, and when leisure is provided for their use, genuine interests in good magazines can be developed.

15. A variety of class activities have been successfully employed in improving the range and quality of young people's magazine reading.

16. Comic magazines are widely read by both children and adults.

17. Comic magazines vary widely in educational acceptability.

18. Comic magazines apparently have little effect upon behavior, personality development, or reading ability.

19. The reading of Comic magazines tends to decline in the early high school years.

20. Good books and magazines can compete successfully with Comic magazines when children and youth have easy access to a great variety of reading materials.

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Newspapers

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In spite of the rapid development of other means of communication, the newspaper remains the people's chief source of information regarding current affairs. According to Lazarsfeld,[1] neither the weekly newsmagazine nor the radio newscast has reduced the total amount of newspaper reading. The 334 morning newspapers in the United States aggregate a total circulation of 20,545,908; the 1,429 evening newspapers account for a circulation of 50,927,505; and the 497 Sunday newspapers are bought by 43,665,364 people. Many copies of the newspaper are, of course, read by more than one person. Clearly the intelligent reading of the newspaper continues to be a primary objective of the schools.

The problem is not merely one of creating the ability to comprehend what is in the newspapers and to utilize their numerous and excellent services, but of developing independent judgment with respect to biases present in the news and editorial columns of the newspaper. Roughly 85 percent of American towns have but one newspaper.[2] Of the 1,750 daily newspapers in the United States, 375 are owned by a few large chains controlling more than one fourth of our total daily circulation.[3] The growth of the great news services and syndicates, which have enabled American journalism to match the efficiency of our other mass production industries, has at the same time created the danger of monopoly in the realm of ideas. The need for critical reading abilities is therefore more acute today than in any previous period in our history. Examples of distortion and suppression of the news in favor of the economic and political interests of the publishers (real or imagined) could be enumerated at length. Inasmuch as the viewpoints advanced in the daily press are frequently supported by propaganda materials distributed in large quantities to the schools, the need for providing a balance of opinions in the reading matter available to children and youth becomes apparent.

[1] "The Daily Newspaper and Its Competitors," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1942, p. 219.

[2] "One Newspaper Towns in the U. S., 1910-1940," *N. E. A. Journal* XXXVI (February, 1947) 118.

[3] R. K. Eichelberger, "Freedom to be Well Informed," *Senior Scholastic* (Teachers Edition) LI (October 27, 1947) 22-3.

The Newspaper Reading Interests of Children and Youth

The newspaper reading interests of elementary school children. The great majority of studies dealing with newspaper reading have been conducted at the high school level. It would be wrong to assume, however, that elementary school pupils are not interested in newspapers, or that their interest is confined to the comic strip. Anderson (1), Davis (29), and Lazar (56) found that both boys and girls in the elementary school devote a considerable amount of time to the reading of newspapers. Johnson (54) found that children read books in greater quantity than adults, and that both adults and children read newspapers about thirty five minutes daily. If the time spent in listening to the radio (generally estimated at two and one-half to three hours daily), the time spent at the

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movies (about three hours per week), and the time spent in reading magazines estimated by H. R. Anderson (2) at two to three hours daily is added to this figure, it becomes apparent that children spend at least as much time with the mass media of communication as they spend in school. It is clear that the school cannot afford to ignore the educational effects of these communication media.

While Comic strips lead in popularity among the various features of the newspaper, general news, sports, and local news appear prominently among the sections which elementary school pupils read. The Comic section, according to Witty (95), is very popular among children. The average number of Comic strips read regularly by the groups in his study was twenty-one. The studies of newspaper reading by children of elementary school age that have been reported are extremely limited in number. Further research in this area is urgently needed.

The newspaper reading interests of high school youth. A very large number of investigations have been made in the field of high school students' interests in newspaper reading. Such studies as have been made of the time devoted to newspaper reading by high school students suggest that young people generally read newspapers from 15 to 35 minutes daily (2, 12, 29, 35, 43, and 54), and that adults spent 35-60 or more minutes daily in the reading of the newspaper (70, 54, and 94). Comic strips lead all features of the newspaper in popularity, according to most of the studies, with sports and general news (foreign and national) following closely (2, 12, 14 and 20). Boys, of course, give high priority to sports news, girls to fashion news (35, 74, 76, 27). Front page news, as opposed to news stories on the inside pages, achieved high rank among the sections of the newspaper most widely read by both boys and girls in high school and by adults (20, 35, 37, 99 and 27). Local news likewise commanded great popularity (1, 2, 41, 74, 76, 99).

One investigator (25) observes that students tend, after graduation, to drift into indifference and apathy with regard to current affairs. He attributes this fact to a number of factors: (1) unfamiliarity with newspaper vocabulary (72 percent of more than 500 students did not know that "probe" means "investigation"); (2) inability to distinguish between news stories and editorials; (3) inability to detect instances of journalistic license, embodied in such over-used expressions as, "it has been reported, alleged, or surmised"; (4) inability to discover discrepancies when newspaper stories flatly contradict their headlines, and (5) inability to distinguish between desirable and undesirable newspapers. This investigator recommends that schools give systematic instruction in critical thinking, in the meaning of newspaper jargon, and in the development of criteria for evaluating newspapers.

Harvey and Denton (43) found that from 70 to 90 percent of high school students generally believe what they read in the newspapers, but that when social science teachers stress intelligent newspaper reading the percentage falls as low as 24. Seward and Silvers (77) found that during wartime, readers tend to believe reports issued by their government rather than those issued by the enemy, and that they are more likely to believe war news favorable to their own side rather than that which is favorable to the enemy. One may assume that in peacetime, readers in any country are more likely to accept their own government's version of an international dispute rather than that of an opposing country. Harvey and Denton found further that readers have a tendency to believe good news rather than bad news, and to believe news adverse to its source rather than news favorable to its source. An obvious goal for instruction in newspaper reading would therefore seem to be the development of objectivity with respect to news reports from

sources involved in political or international controversy.

Newspaper Reading in the Schools

One study of school activities in promoting more intelligent reading of the newspaper (43) revealed that 29 of 41 schools addressed made efforts to provide guidance in the reading of newspapers, and that all of the schools believed that such efforts are desirable. Judging by the extensive bibliography of school units on newspapers, one may reasonably conclude that secondary schools, at least, are giving considerable attention to the problem of newspaper reading. Whether they are giving effective guidance, on a sufficiently large scale, is difficult to say. Little evidence has been reported on this question. The results, in terms of young people's reading interests in the field of the newspaper, would suggest that present efforts are insufficient (57) (60).

Objectives for the Teaching of the Newspaper

One of the clearest statements of desirable objectives in the improvement of young people's newspaper reading has been made by Dale (28). He asserts that intelligent study of a good newspaper can help us lead rich lives by (1) showing us what work in the world we can help do; (2) helping us to get the most for our money; (3) helping us to see the crime problem clearly; (4) helping us to have a good time on a small income; and (5) helping us to make up our own minds. In another place (27), Dale lists three objectives for the teacher of English in the development of discrimination in newspaper reading: (1) familiarizing boys and girls with the best examples of modern journalism; (2) helping boys and girls get a richer and much more comprehensive understanding of the role that the press might play in community life; and (3) developing the capacity for close, careful reading.

Three major categories of objectives emerge from the literature in this field. They are (1) the expansion of young people's interests in newspapers; (2) the development of an awareness of the major trends and events in current affairs; and (3) the development of powers of discrimination with respect to newspaper reading.

1. *The expansion of young people's interests in newspapers.* Newspapers at their best provide a variety of services which are not adequately utilized by young people, many of whom restrict their newspaper reading to the Comic strips, sports pages, and possibly the front page headlines. By availing themselves of other parts of the daily newspaper, young people can find amusement and entertainment, information concerning present hobbies and suggestions for new ones, guidance in the selection of motion pictures and radio programs, business and vocational information, and many other kinds of aid. In many instances young people need merely to be introduced to newspaper features to start them on the road to fuller utilization of the things the newspaper has to offer.

2. *The development of an awareness of the major trends and events in current affairs.* Studies of knowledge of current events on the part of young people and adults, including teachers, reveal that many people have only the vaguest knowledge of men and events in our own time. Regular newspaper reading is essential to an elementary acquaintance with the happenings in the world today. With all their limitations, newspapers, along with radio newscasts, are our chief source of knowledge concerning the contemporary scene. A list of the major events recorded in the newspaper in the course of two or three days of news reporting yields a large volume of information regarding such fields as politics, economics, commerce, sociology, science, religion, education, art, and music. It would appear that the

school could and should utilize more fully and more skilfully the resources provided by the daily newspaper for the preparation of well-informed citizens.

3. *The development of powers of discrimination with respect to newspaper reading.* While the press performs an indispensable service as an educational agency, and while American journalists are among the most efficient in the world, newspapers are not, in the main, completely reliable as sources of information. Most newspaper reading adults in the United States express lack of confidence in the factual accuracy and impartiality of newspaper reports.

The fact that the publication of a newspaper, or a chain of newspapers, involves heavy financial investment quite naturally tends to create in the publishers a bias in favor of the viewpoint of the large industrialist. The social and political outlook of the advertiser will also necessarily affect the treatment of the news. The need to win and maintain large circulation will often cause newspapers to favor a viewpoint thought to be popular among large sections of the readership. For this reason it is necessary to provide young people with skills that will enable them to read newspapers with discrimination.

Pitfalls in the reading of newspapers take many forms. Least common of these forms is the deliberate misstatement of fact. Much more common is the distortion of the news by means of emphasis upon certain items and by means of underplaying or suppressing others. This practice is probably unavoidable. It is followed by newspapers of every political, economic, and social complexion. It results from the necessity of making choices among available news stories, and from exercising judgments which inevitably involve some prejudices. Some newspapers, of course, make greater efforts than others to present the news impartially. Some newspapers are more successful than others in eliminating "editorializing" from the news columns.

Developing discrimination in reading the newspaper is not a mere process of cultivating skepticism. It is a process of building a broad background of information about the topics under discussion, of inducing an awareness of a given newspaper's bias, and of confronting the reader with a variety of viewpoints on public affairs. In practical terms, this process involves bringing into the classroom a variety of newspapers, magazines, newsletters, pamphlets, and books which will enable the reader to approach the local newspaper with greater intelligence. Reliance upon a single source, or type of source, leaves the reader helpless in the face of whatever purposes may move the publisher.

Procedures in Newspaper Study

A great volume of material has been published on the subject of classroom procedures in the improvement of newspaper reading. Many of the techniques reported are duplicated in the various reference listed below, but the total number of different activities is very large. Some of the more promising of these activities are listed here. They include suggestions for both elementary and secondary schools.

PROJECTS AND CLASS ACTIVITIES

Class Activities

I. Write a class book on the newspaper. Chapters may be devoted to these or similar topics:

A. The ways in which the printing press has changed man's life.

B. How the newspaper affects our daily lives.

C. The industries connected with newspaper publishing.

D. The contributions of the "fighting journalists" (Dana, Garrison, Zenger, etc.) to present-day newspaper journalism.

E. Some of the outstanding services to the country performed by news papers during the past war.

II. Prepare a class exhibit on the newspaper. Invite other classes and your parents to visit the exhibit at an "Open House." The exhibit may consist of projects such as these:

A. Charts showing:

1. A comparison of the amount of space given to various subjects or types of stories in a tabloid newspaper and more conventional newspapers such as the New York *Times*, the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*, the Kansas City *Star*, or the *Christian Science Monitor*.
2. The percentage of your town paper which is devoted to advertising and the percentage given to news. (Measure by column inches. Is the paper primarily an advertising or a news medium?)
3. The special features that can be found in ten of the leading newspapers of the country. Show what can be found in one but not in another, and perhaps compare your findings with your local paper.
4. The sources from which news generally comes.

B. Caricatures, or cartoons, which explain:

1. The duties of a newspaper editor, publisher, reporter, copyreader, headlinewriter, and foreign correspondent.
2. The meaning of the following terms:
   Rotogravure
   News syndicate
   News vs. a feature story
   Tabloid
   A newspaper chain
   Yellow journalism
   Jingoism
   Facsimile Newspapers

C. Diagrams showing:

1. A newspaper plant layout
2. The ways news is gathered
3. The route news follows, from source to reader

D. Models, in clay, wood, or papier mache.

E. Paintings, pencil sketches, or water colorings

III. Present an assembly or PTA program about the newspaper. Activities such as these may be included on the program:

A. A Living Newspaper*

B. A skit depicting the editor and his staff preparing the day's edition for press.

C. A monologue or pantomime showing the "average reader" reading the "average newspaper." Perhaps this could be portrayed in two scenes: first, how he actually reads it, and second, how he should read the newspaper.

IV. Visit a newspaper plant

V. Visit a paper mill or newsprint plant

VI. Visit a radio news room

VII. Visit an advertising agency

VIII. Prepare a class newspaper using and following rules set up by the class as to what a good newspaper should do and contain.

IX. A class survey to find out who the class's favorite (1) news columnist, (2) reporter, (3) comic strip author, (4) sports columnist, (5) features columnist are. Determine if the class's choices have been the wisest and best.

*See Brown, Spencer, *They See For Themselves*, New York, Harpers, 1945, p. 57-77.

X. Make a study of what a reader can expect to find in various types and sizes of newspapers (by using copies of these papers): large metropolitan dailies, tabloids, religious newspapers, papers published by various national or ethnic groups, labor newspapers, newspapers published by companies and corporations, Sunday newspapers, weekly newspapers, and, if possible, newspapers published in other languages.

XI. Try to find some answers to this question: "What Effect Does the Reading in Our Community Have on Our Thinking?"

XII. Bring to class articles to be judged by Dale's "Canons of Journalism."[3]

XIII. Briefly study the history of newspapers in the United States.

Small Group Projects

XIV. A panel discussion: The ways in which radio news and newspaper news are similar, and the ways in which they differ.

XV. Compare the way in which news articles in newspapers and news magazines (*Time, Newsweek, Business Week, New Republic* and *U. S. News*) are handled. In what major ways do they differ?

XVI. Make a class survey, using the families of the class members as guinea pigs, of what is read by the different age groups, separating them by sexes.

XVII. Compare you local newspaper with the New York *Times*, the New York *Herald Tribune*, the *Christian Science Monitor*, etc.

XVIII. Select several newspapers and determine how much space is devoted to crime stories and other of the sordid happenings of the day. Compare the amount of space with the amount given to national news, international news, art, movies, books, and the theatre.

XIX. Determine the community and welfare projects that have been undertaken in your community during the past year. To what extent did the local paper participate? On the basis of its role in these campaigns, would you say that the paper is, or is not, performing a community service?

XX. Make a comparison of radio columnists (e.g., Swing, Murrow, Shirer) with newspaper columnists (e.g., Lippman Lawrence, Fleeson).

XXI. Make a comparison of newspaper from different sections of the country.

XXII. Make a comparison of newspapers from different types of communities (farming, residential, industrial, etc.)

Individual Projects

XXIII. Find out all you can about the author of your favorite comic strip: his philosophy of life, his political, social, and economic affiliations, his views on contemporary affairs. To what extent are these views reflected in his work? Present your findings to the class in a talk: "A Personality Profile of ————."

XXIV. Pick stories which you believe contain a definite bias. Tell the class what you believe this bias is, and what you think the effect of this bias will probably be.

XXV. Read several issues of *Quill and Scroll, Scholastic, Tide, Editor and Publisher*, and *Broadcasting* to become familiar

[3]Responsibility; Freedom of the Press; Independence; Sincerity, truthfulness, accuracy; impartiality; fair play; decency. Edgar Dale, *How to Read a Newspaper*, New York: Scott, Foresman, 1941.

with the current issues and problems connected with school newspapers, advertising, commercial newspapers, and radio news.

Topics for Panel, Class, and Small Group Discussions

1. Should newspapers suppress news "harmful" to the country?*
2. Should newspapers omit names of first offenders in minor crimes?
3. Should newspapers be licensed by the federal government?
4. Should newspapers be permitted to criticize the government?
5. Should newspapers publish beer advertisements?
6. Should newspapers publish whiskey advertisements?
7. Should newspapers publish patent medicine advertisements?
8. Should crime news be put all together on a certain inside page?
9. Should crime news be omitted entirely from newspapers?
10. Do newspapers usually suppress news which will reflect on advertisers or prominent citizens?
11. Do papers in general purposely falsify the news?
12. Are papers generally unfair to labor?
13. Do papers generally publish too much sensational news?
14. Does publication of crime news lead to more crimes?
15. Do papers usually present a fair treatment of opposing political parties?
16. Do newspapers usually present a fair treatment of legislative bodies of the government?
17. Do newspapers usually present a fair treatment of religion?
18. Ask the following questions about any paper you read:
    a. Who owns the paper?
    b. What groups in the community is the newspaper eager to attract?
    c. Who are the advertisers?
    d. What are the principal factors in the newspaper's editorial policy?
    e. What groups in the community are likely to benefit from this editorial policy?
    f. What groups are likely to be harmed by this editorial policy?
    g. In what ways is this policy expressed throughout the paper?
    h. Are important items of news suppressed?
19. Are the headlines an accurate summary of the news article, or are they merely glaring fictions to attract readers?
20. What is the point of origin of specific foreign dispatches?
21. Does the paper have too many pictures?
22. Does the paper have too many cartoons?
23. Apply to the newspaper Dale's "Canons of Journalism":
    a. Responsibility
    b. Freedom of the press
    c. Independence
    d. Sincerity, truthfulness, accuracy
    e. Impartiality
    f. Fair play
    g. Decency
24. In analyzing newspapers these factors should be brought into account:
    a. Who are its competitors?
    b. How many pages and sections does it usually have?
    c. For what feature (s) is it outstanding?

*Items 1-17 are from: Thalheimer, J. A., and Gererick, J. K., "Reader Attitudes Toward Question of Newspaper Policy and Practice", *Journalism Quarterly* XII (Sept. 35), 266-271.

d. What are the outstanding features of outstanding newspapers in the United States, and in foreign countries?

e. Who are, if any, the outstanding writers, reporters, analysts, cartoonists, and photographers who contribute to it?

25. Does the paper present news accurately, interestingly, adequately?
26. Does it interpret the news?
27. How does it interpret the news?
28. Does the newspaper comment and editorialize upon the news in its "news" articles?
29. Does the advertising in the paper help the community carry out its business?
30. Does the newspaper help solve business, family, or economic problems?
31. Does the newspaper entertain and amuse, but not have this as its sole, or most important, reason for being published?
32. Does the newspaper show what reforms or changes in society are needed?
33. Does the newspaper help you get the most for your money?
34. Does the newspaper help you to see the crime problem clearly?
35. Does the newspaper help you to have a good time on a small amount?
36. Does the newspaper help you to make up your own mind (not make it up for you)?
37. Is the source of news, as given in the news story, a reliable one? Is it a specific person or agency? Does the person hold a responsible position? Does he serve any specific or special interest?
38. Which type of news is more accurate—radio or newspaper?
39. Would a newspaper without advertisements present the news more accurately? and one radio station with a single owner. Other towns have a morning newspaper and an evening newspaper, both having
40. In what sense is a newspaper a business enterprise, run for profit for the owner?
41. Is there propaganda in newspaper advertisements? What is the function, good or bad, of "public service" advertising?
42. How important is freedom of the press in a democracy?
43. What are the inventions that have made our newspapers the complex enterprises that they are today?
44. How much money is involved—the cash outlay—in publishing a newspaper?
45. What are the differences (how does the paper change) in the various editions published during one day?
46. Are newspaper headlines usually accurate?
47. How much can be learned by reading headlines alone? (Try a class game: Each pupil submit stories, with headlines cut off. Mix them up, and try to match stories with headlines.)
48. What is a good definition of "news"? What are its characteristics?
49. What are the functions of advertisements?
50. Why can some advertisements be grouped together without any display (classifieds) while others must be attractive and showy?
51. What stories are usually found on the front page?
52. Why are advertisements in a newspaper usually grouped?
53. How does the composition of a newspaper *news* story differ from that of nonprofessional news stories?
54. What is the function of the editorial page in a newspaper?
55. What are the ways in which the function, type, and intent of editorials differ today from those of fifty years ago?
56. In what important ways do news stories and feature stories differ?
57. Many towns have only one newspaper with

the same owner. Does this agree with what is usually thought of as "freedom of the press," or with what is usually thought of as "freedom of competition"?

58. What differences can be noted in by-line and non-by-line news stories?
59. What are some ways in which news is gathered?
60. What are the meanings of these words which are often found in news stories:
    "alleged"
    "it is reported"
    "from an unknown source"
    "from good authority"
    "it is felt in some circles"
    "an unconfirmed report"
    "no comment"
    "a press conference"?
61. How may propaganda be defined? Recognized? Combated?
62. Can propaganda be found in comics, sport news, features articles, and editorials?
63. In what ways is your family provided for, or not, in the make-up of your local newspaper?
64. How does your family usually interpret, or discuss the daily news?
65. What are slanted headlines?
66. In what ways can the gist of news be obtained hurriedly from newspapers?

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Radio

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What Are Children's Listening Interests?

In a mood of black despair, an outstanding radio educator recently exclaimed, "Children of today listen to the radio only when there is no television set available." He was reflecting an attitude rather common today that television, because it is new and dramatic and has received so much public attention during the past year, is being forecast as the death of radio. This general belief, however, is disproved by statistics (17), which indicate that there has been a steady increase in the hours of radio listening in the average home. From 1943-1948 this increase has been 26 percent. A fifteen year study of national advertising appropriations (11) shows that in 1934 the national advertisers spent three hundred thirty-three and a third million dollars in three media —163 million in newspapers, 113½ million in magazines, and 56.8 million in radio. In 1948, national advertisers spent $393,700,000 in newspapers, $512,700,000 in magazines, and $377,300,000 in radio. It is obvious that newspapers have not killed billboards, even the news magazines did not kill newspapers; radio did not kill or even injure other existing media. Television, if used in conjunction with newspapers, magazines, and radio, will undoubtedly follow the same pattern. Naturally, there is competition between the media; but each person is daily faced with the competitive decision — whether to read a book, go for a walk, listen to the radio, see a movie, visit with friends, or listen to and view a television program. This competition has made each medium progressively better in entertainment, in news, and in education fields; and it is reasonable to assume that this healthy growth will continue.

A summary and critical analysis of research literature on children and radio in 1941 (9) gives a detailed analysis covering children between the ages of six and eighteen. This summary reveals the fact that children's radio listening activities, even at an early age, are dependent largely upon what is available over the radio. Family listening seems to account for some of the most consistently popular programs among boys and girls and through all ages (39). Children themselves cannot be classified by age levels as to likes and dislikes; they listen to the radio program that appeals to them. Planners of children's programs have divided the listening habits of children into three groups (36): the pre-school child up to six years of age; the intermediate group, from six to nine; and the older group from ten to fourteen. They do this in the belief that programs with definite appeals to children at each of these age levels should be built and broadcast. However, a survey of children's radio listening tastes refutes this idea, except in the case of the youngest group concerning which there is some doubt.

In a recent survey of radio listening habits and program preferences of children in grades four to nine (38), children's serials were preferred by 28.5 percent of the children, followed by non-mystery dramas, crime and mystery dramas, featured comedians, quiz programs, popular music, variety, adult serials, miscellan-

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eous music, serious music, talks, sportscasts, newscasts (local), and commentators (network). As pupils progressed from fourth to ninth grade, children's serials showed a consistent decline in popularity, while non-mystery dramas, crime and mystery dramas, and comedians showed a reverse trend. Popular music also gained in popularity as pupils advanced in the grades.

In 1948, the following ten programs were listed as the favorites of boys and girls aged eight to fourteen (43): *Lone Ranger, Blondie, Lux Radio Theatre, Archie Andrews, Let's Pretend, Gang Busters, Frank Merriwell, Baby Snooks, Disc Jockeys, Superman.* These choices show a marked similarity to the ten programs found to be most frequently listened to by children between the fourth and the eighth grade in 1939 (39): *Charlie Mc Carthy, Jack Benny, Lone Ranger, Lux Radio Theatre, Jack Armstrong, Captain Midnight, Gangbusters, Dick Tracey, Don Winslow, Bing Crosby, Bob Burns.*

An analysis of the listening of high school pupils in studies made from 1933 through 1943 (33) supports the findings reported in 1947 (10), that aside from the general run of programs to which teen-agers listen, there are three specific types of programs which might be called *their* programs: (1) adult shows such as comedy, information, and drama; (2) popular music programs with sparkling conversation; and (3) programs in which teen-agers participate, whether it be of the variety or informative type.

Differences in age, geographical variations, socio-economic background, and sex differences play a part in the listening habits of children, as well as in leisure time activities (9). One report (38) cites Comic books and the theatre as competing with both the radio and the textbook for a child's attention out of school. In a comparison made between juvenile listening and other activities of fifteen to nineteen year-olds (43), however, the following statistics were presented:

	Percent Participating	Average Time Spent during Day (minutes)
Radio	77	91
Newspapers	84	22
Magazines	51	20
Movies	27	44
Books	34	22

In other words, the amount of time spent listening to radio is 313. 6 percent more than is spent in reading newspapers or books; 355 percent more than is spent in reading magazines; 108.6 percent more than is spent in going to movies.

A summary of average daily listening time (39) for boys and girls was two and a quarter hours. The 1947 study (38) indicated that peak listening of village children occurs from 8 - 8:30 A. M. Farm children listened most between 6:30 and 8:30 a. m. Highest urban listening ranged between 7 and 8:30 a. m. As school hours approached, a sharp decline was noted in the listening. In the evening, 90.1 percent of urban boys and 90.4 percent urban girls listen; 87.7 percent of village boys and 84.6 percent of village girls; 82.4 percent of farm boys and 80.6 percent of farm girls. The heaviest listening occurs from 4:30 to 9:30 p. m.

What Is the Effect of Radio Listening on Children?

This weekly average of about sixteen hours of radio listening, compared with the twenty-five hours spent in school per week, aroused the interest and anxiety of parent groups. They could not ignore the force of radio in its influence on children. Research findings (9) support them, for the evidence establishes beyond doubt that radio has a strong emotional appeal for its young listeners. However, the type of appeal that it has is likely to vary for different types of children. Age differences,

x differences, content of the program, in-ucements offered by advertisers, identification ith a social group, and interests in other ac-vities are all factors which enter the realm of e effects of listening. Rowland states (28), If we are realistic, we must conclude that the ecific effects of radio cannot be measured and ese effects cannot be separated from the mul-plicity of other life experiences." Research has dicated (4) more intensive short-range emo-onal effects of listening among younger chil-ren in comparison to older children; younger ildren react to incidents rather than to the velopment of a plot. Older children are less kely to take stories as "real," or seem better ble to guess what is going to happen.

In general, it was found (9) that parents prove a greater number of programs than they sapprove. Their approval is based on educa-onal grounds and the fact that radio listening eeps children busy, while their disapproval is sed on emotional excitement induced by lis-ning to crime and horror stories which were und (18) to induce increased nervousness, leeping disturbances, and fears.

Parents became aroused and indignantly rotested the horror program on the radio, for was clearly a community problem. Even when arents controlled radio listening within their wn homes, children heard these thrillers at e homes of their friends. No radio station caped their denunciations. Child Study, Li-rary, and Parent Groups began to study the roblem and conferred with broadcasters, who owed genuine concern, not only from a point f poor public relations but from a genuine esire to improve their offerings to children.

As early as 1934 the Women's National adio Committee was formed to raise the andard of radio programs, and through their fluence some of the most undesirable pro-rams were taken off the air (8). Since that me, there has been a steady, strong trend to-ward cooperation among representatives of the radio industry, national sponsors, advertising agencies, organized women's groups, educators, librarians, and radio editors in working toward the improvement of radio programs for children (6, 28, 13, 14, 7, 5, 16). Late in 1947, for example (43), the sponsors of the radio networks' major children's shows promised 100 percent cooperation with the American Heritage Foundation in a campaign using heroes to entrench the basic tenets of Americanism in the minds of the nation's youth: "Scripts of the various programs will stress good citizenship, intelligent use of the ballot box, tolerance, and all the democratic obligations of all Americans."

Contrary to general belief, most children's radio shows must meet rigid standards before being accepted for broadcast (26). Dr. Martin L. Reymert, internationally known psychologist who has been pre-testing the *Jack Armstrong* show during the past ten years, has evolved the following set of standards generally applicable to children's programs:

1. The program should be interesting to the child, accurate in presentation and feasible in plot.

   This means no superman exploits, or superhuman phenomena. Superstitious beliefs and the supernatural should never be portrayed as having any factual basis or reality.

2. The program should meet acceptable standards of craftsmanship in presentation.

   The speeches of all characters should be checked for poor grammar, syntax, and unnecssary slang. Only non-profane words should be used for strong exclamatory expressions. Consider the appropriateness of each character's speech in relation to age and sex.

3. There should be vividness and clarity in presenting the action.

Keep the audience aware of what is happening at all times, even though the action is varied, fast-moving and strenuous. The conversation of the characters should indicate much of what is happening.

4. The excitement of the plot should be wholesome. Eliminate horror elements.

   Never end an episode on a pitch of excitement that will make rest and sleep difficult. Avoid shootings, kidnapings, brutal murders, tortures and anything that tends to induce insecurity.

5. The program should foster constructive social attitudes and promote a respect for fine personal qualities.

   Respect for parental authority and law and order should be instilled. Loyalty, dependability, unselfishness, tolerance and character should be emphasized. However, black-and-white delimitations between the heroes and villains must not be made.

6. Psychological phenomena and processes should be treated in the light of the best available information.

7. The program should contain sufficient hero characters, when these are children, to furnish models with which the various age groups or sexes may identify themselves.

8. The program should contain educational elements interwoven as part and parcel of the story.

   The incidental technique with the child learning without realizing is better than direct teaching. Science, adventure and travel are good devices for this. Factual presentation is a must.

As was indicated earlier, at a comparatively early age the audience of children is listening to adult programs. Dorothy Gordon, well-known producer of children's programs, points up the problem (8): it is not so much what is on the air for children's listening that is dangerous for the youth of America, but rather what is *not* on the air. She cites the use of radio as a powerful weapon in the hands of Germany and Russia in indoctrinating their youth and points out the necessity for using this medium of mass communication, with its tremendous influence on children, to educate our youth in democracy and the building of a postwar world that is secure and democratic.

What Are Desirable Classroom Practices?

Just as radio networks and women's organizations have cooperated in the improvement of radio fare for children's listening based on study and research, so research studies in the use and effectiveness of radio have been incorporated by educators and broadcasters in the development of effective use of radio in the classroom (1). Such phases of radio as an analysis of program planning, script preparation, production techniques, classroom utilization, and evaluation of results have occupied the attention of radio education specialists. A summary of their findings incorporated in the yearbooks of the Institutes for Education by Radio, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, and the School Broadcast Conferences, 228 No. La Salle Street, Chicago 1, Illinois, serves as a record of the gradual growth and increased effectiveness of educational broadcasting.

The classroom teacher, then, has at his disposal a teaching medium which he may utilize to enrich the curriculum, to supplement, explain, and implement the learning process. The networks, the local stations, and the FM educational stations all cooperate in the presentation of good radio programs, either for in school or for home listening. In radio, the teacher has an educational tool which eliminates distance, which serves as a powerful motivator of action as it stimulates the emotions of its listeners, and which intensifies its message in it

ower to dramatize events.

Although Cleveland is well known for its e of radio as a direct teaching tool whereby master teacher carries through the complete sson, most educational radio today may be haracterized as an out-growth of the "supple-entary" philosophy. The radio broadcast, it believed, should be used to supplement and rich the work of the class, just as the map, lobe, charts, movies, filmstrips, field trips, and ramatizations are used to contribute to cur-culum development.

Stress is placed on the *utilization* of the roadcast, for its chief value lies in its integra-on with the classroom work. Experts in the eld of educational radio will admit that the ost excellent program on the air has negli-ible value in the hands of an indifferent teach-r who simply turns the radio on and off with-ut taking time to integrate the broadcast by dequate preparation and follow-up activities ith the current fields of study. To assist the acher in using a broadcast, most educational ries are now accompanied by a teacher's man-l which contains a synopsis of the program, well as carefully developed suggestions for lass activities, "Before the broadcast," "Dur-g the Broadcast," and "After the Broadcast." requently a listing of key words for vocabu-ry development are included, and many add bibliography of supplementary books in the eld.

The possibilities for utilizing radio broad-sts, including both in-school and out-of-school stening, in the field of language arts are un-mited. Many current books and pamphlets on tilization are available to the teacher who ishes to avail himself of the best develop-ents in the field (12, 20, 25, 29, 37, 41, 42). ctual classroom practices used by teachers mphasize the fact that even the poorest broad-st on the air may be utilized in the field of nguage arts: it may stimulate discussion, evelop critical analysis and appraisal, stimu-late further reading, lead to writing construc-tive criticism, or to creative writing based on desirable objectives.

In general, the first step in good utilization consists of finding out what programs are avail-able (44, 55). Then through the skillful guid-ance of the instructor in a classroom discussion, students may be led to make an analysis of those programs which would supplement and enrich their particular fields of interest. Programs on biography — life stories of outstanding men and women of our own time and of other times — drama and fiction, or news and commentary can all be utilized to develop an increased awareness of the extensive field of reading in these areas. An appreciation of good writing techniques in various types of broadcasts may stimulate an emulation of these techniques through simulated or live broadcasts. Letter-writing to stations for materials or to express constructive criticism may be encouraged. Let-ters may be sent to individuals as participants in the program, or to friends, to exchange views on broadcasts. Creative writing may be stimu-lated. We may use the radio broadcast to pro-mote an appreciation of excellent speech in the actual broadcasts; we may encourage stu-dents to emulate good speech exemplified in these broadcasts, in everyday conversation, in speaking assignments, and in dramatic groups. We may promote the development of skill in the organization of thought through outlining, summarizing, or note-taking. We may develop critical discrimination by comparing analagous reports and watching for distortions, by com-paring organization and completeness of cover-age, by watching for pitfalls to thinking.

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Television

DALLAS W. SMYTHE[1]

The advent of television portends profound changes in our civilization. A new evaluation of educational uses of all methods of communication is required, resting on an awareness of the potential and the problems presented in TV (as we may hereafter call television). Predictions about so new an art must be handled with due respect to rather wide margins of possible error. Within these limits (identified by words such as "about," "probably," and "in the order of"), this article attempts to predict the shape, size, and rate of growth of this new medium. It then tries to sketch TV's implications on three levels. The first of these levels already has been established through the overtures made by TV equipment manufacturers to schools for experimentation in pupil participation in TV at the producing and receiving ends. It may be described as the "school-industry cooperation" level. The second level is the possibility of operation by the schools of their own facilities both for production and reception. It may be termed the "school operation" level. The third level consists of the implications of TV for broader issues of educational policy. For example, it is suggested that the development in the pupil of the habit of critical discrimination towards the fare offered by the TV and radio is a "must" for the schools of a democracy no whit less urgent than the need to develop a similar habit with respect to literature. For example again, it is suggested that the eventual habituation of most of the population to viewing TV for an average of three or more hours a day may, unless offset by the influence of the schools, work against the growth of integrated personalities and may impair the effectiveness of local institutions in performing their functions.

The Prospect for Television

Today, 94 TV stations in 54 cities make TV available to about 53 million people living in these metropolitan areas, and to about 22 million more who live outside them, but within the service range of the stations. This represents rapid growth since the first of 1948 when there were only 19 stations on the air. We may expect the 94 stations to increase to more than 100 by the end of 1949.

There are now about 3.2 million TV sets in use. In the past 12 months the number in use has multiplied about five times; in less than two years, more than ten times. It is obvious that we are living through the turbulent birth-period of a major art form and industry.

The present users of TV, like the stations serving them, are in the heaviest concentrations of population. Thus, 16—about one-third of the total—of the communities with TV are located in Atlantic Coast States north of the Potomac River. Another sixteen. . . . are in the North Central States. Nine are in the South Central States, seven are in the South Atlantic States, four on the Pacific Coast, and two in the Mountain States. There is now TV service in 32 states. While it may be assumed that the reader will be aware of the present existence of TV stations in his own community, it may be useful to list the communities which have construction under way on TV stations and which may be expected to have service within the next few months:

Ames, Iowa
Binghampton, N. Y.

[1]Research professor, Institute of Communications Research, and member of the College of Commerce and Business Administration, the University of Illinois. Formerly Chief, Economics and Statistics Division, Federal Communications Commission.

Kalamazoo, Michigan
Lansing, Michigan
Nashville, Tennessee
Norfolk, Virginia
Portland, Oregon
Riverside, California
St. Petersburg, Florida
San Antonio, Texas
Utica-Rome, N. Y.

At present TV makes service available to somewhat less than half of the population. Fortunately, the future prospects for TV are not limited to the 66 communities now or very shortly to be served. To understand the longer prospect, however, requires consideration of technical problems.

The Public Interest in the Technical Base of Television

TV, like all uses of the radio, is an application of an electronic art to the use of the radio spectrum. In the United States, according to national policy, well-settled for several decades, the *use* "in the public interest, convenience and necessity," but not the ownership of radio channels is periodically granted to citizens. These periodic grants, called licenses, are issued by the people of the United States (the owners of the radio spectrum) through a public agency (now the Federal Communications Commission). This agency operates under a policy, adopted on behalf of the American people by the Congress, of regulating radio communication "so as to make available, so far as possible, to all the people of the United States" the best possible service in the public interest. Prior to licensing the use of radio channels for commercial use, the Commission must determine the best technique for performing the type of service in question. This determination of engineering standards, subsequently used by all equipment manufacturers and broadcasters, is necessary if we are to have standardization in equipment performance. The second preliminary to actual licensing is the determination by the Commission of an allocation plan—a geographic spacing of station assignments—designed for the best use of the available channels. This determination must take account of the concentration of the population in certain small areas (especially the heavy concentration in New England and Middle Atlantic States) and the interference which will be created by stations operating on the same channel, and on adjacent channels.

Shortly after the War, the Commission, after consideration of the possibilities of the arts of broadcasting black and white and color TV, determined engineering standards and an allocation plan for black and white TV. That proceeding established standards for black and white TV in the 12 "low band" channels between 54 and 216 megacycles.[2] It also allocated the available assignments for about 400 stations in some 140 metropolitan areas. The Commission recognized that these channels would not provide service to the whole population, but in the light of the importance of other uses for channel space below 216 megacycles—for FM, for international radio-telegraph, for aeronautical radio, and for mobile radio-telephone—it could not make more channels available for TV in that portion of the spectrum. Instead it set aside a large amount of spectrum space in the "high band" for experimentation in TV.[3]

By 1948, it was apparent that the rapid growth of the TV industry would shortly require the "opening up" of more TV channels than the 12 already assigned in the "low band." Moreover, interference experienced by the new stations in that band proved to be more serious.

[2]Each of the 12 channels is 6 megacycles wide. Other services were assigned some of the space between 54 and 216 mc. This area has become known as the "low band" for TV, a "band" being a number of channels assigned for a particular radio service.

[3]The "high band" for TV consists of the space between 475 and 890 megacycles. Experimentation in this band was thought of in terms of developing either higher definition black and white TV or color TV, and exploring the equipment and wave propagation peculiarities of that portion of the spectrum.

lan had been expected by either the industry or he FCC when the 1946 allocation plan was dopted. Consequently, the FCC in September 948 "froze" the process of granting new TV onstruction permits and committees of industry and government engineeers proceeded to tudy the problem of how to find space for more TV stations. While these studies were underway, Congressional concern was expressed over he possibility that the Commission might again lefer commercial authorization of color TV. Questions were raised publicly as to the role of patents and equipment manufacturers' influence n the FCC's decision in favor of black and white TV in 1946. As a result, demonstrations of the progress made in developing the art of olor TV were held for FCC and Congressional bservers. The studies of the engineering committees were directed explicitly to the complex and controversial issues presented by color and the allocation of the "high band" spectrum space. On September 26, 1949, public hearings were begun by the FCC to consider these issues. This proceeding will last for months, although decisions on some of the issues may be reached before the entire hearing is concluded. Out of the hearing may come: (1) an adjustment of the "low band" standards permitting an end to the freeze, and the accommodation of between 100 and 400 TV stations within this band; (2) a determination of color or black and white TV standards for the "high band" which will be compatible with those in the "low band" (i.e. permit reception of signals from both bands by sets equipped with adapting equipment). Meanwhile, until the Commission acts to end it, the "freeze" will still prevent any of the 313 applications caught in it in September 1948 from becoming active stations. It is obvious that the pressures on the FCC for a resolution of the issues of the hearing and the early lifting of the freeze will be powerful.

Commercial TV Programming

The technical factors, discussed in the preceding paragraphs, set the approximate limits on the shape, size, and rate of growth of TV. A more substantial appraisal of its prospects, however, rests on an appreciation of its cost, its method of support, the character of its service, and its effects.

The cost of TV is high. This is TV's most outstanding characteristic. The minimum investment required to start a full-fledged TV station is in the order of $400,000—about three times the investment of existing AM stations. Operating costs for 14 TV stations in 1948 averaged more than $500,000 apiece—again about three times the average for the AM stations. These cost figures for TV reflect operations on a full basis, with studio facilities, film equipment, field pick-up equipment, etc. Institutions, however, may consider entering TV on a less ambitious basis, as will be explained later. The high cost of TV is a result of several factors. Construction costs are high: TV studio programs require expensive and spacious production and rehearsal rooms with much costly lighting equipment. Video and motion picture equipment is expensive. Antennas, too, come high, both in elevation and in cost. Operating costs are high because of the numerous skills required in the TV labor force. One non-network TV station in New York, for example, after a recent reduction in staff, finds itself with 155 employees, in contrast to which the average AM radio station in 1947 had 23 employees. The difference is due to the fact that TV is an art which is a little like three other art forms —movies, radio, and the stage—and yet is unlike all of them. Until the unique TV art emerges with its own occupational skills and an experienced labor force, it must remain extraordinarily expensive. After that it may merely be expensive.

The method of self-support of TV is developing along radio lines: advertiser sponsor-

ship.[4] Presently more than 1500 advertisers are using TV, many of whom were not previously radio advertisers. So effective is TV reported to be as a selling force (i.e. *demonstrating* the product or service, as well as representing it in static pictures—as in printed media—or in sound—as in radio), that currently it even gives rise to speculation as to its ultimate effect on other methods of marketing goods. At present, in a commercially experimental phase, TV stations under the pressure of high costs are looking hard for sponsors. Their tendency will be to sell as many program hours as possible, for as high rates as possible. Almost all TV stations are now losing money, heavily. Even though by 1950 a substantial number of TV stations will be "in the black," this pressure to sell time will not lessen, for the growing number of TV stations will serve to keep it high.

The character of TV program service is being shaped primarily by this commercial interest in its maximum effectiveness as a selling tool. Program material is selected with this as the controlling consideration from four possible sources: networks, film, studios, and remote pick-ups of events, sports, etc. The sponsored TV program fare[5] added up this way in June: Sports programs amounted to 29 percent of the total programs—the largest single type. All sports are now successfully televised, with boxing, wrestling, and baseball leading in popularity. In October, 1949, for the first time, an advertiser paid organized baseball more for the privilege of putting the World Series on TV than on aural radio. "Variety" programs were second in volume (24 percent) and "children's" programs were third (11 percent). As examples of the high cost of TV, it is noted that the Milton Berle slap-stick variety show is reported to cost $20,000 per week to produce, and Philco is said to spend more than $15,000 a week on its weekly "theatre" program. The remaining 36 percent of the program fare was divided between "dramatic," "musical," "news," "announcements," "educational," "women's" "audience participation," "quiz," and "miscellaneous." The extent of the direct commercial influence on TV programs may be indicated by the fact that in this typical week 41 hours of programs were reported as "educational," or 3 percent of the total. In contrast, while all sponsored programs contain their own commercial messages, an additional 49 hours were devoted to programs which purported to be nothing more than commercial announcements.[6]

The commercial influence on program content even goes so far as to lead the broadcasters "strongly" to oppose a proposal tentatively advanced by the staff of the FCC that statistics should be reported by TV stations to the FCC on the total amount of their program time which is sponsored (as against sustaining), on the total amount of their program time which is locally produced (as against network and film), and on the number of their spot announcements.[7] While seeking to deny the licensing agency information on TV programs, TV stations have been unwilling thus far to establish

[4] Although one prominent radio equipment manufacturer, Zenith, is experimenting with "phonevision," a method of delivering TV service over telephone wires which rests on viewer payments directly to the TV station.

[5] The data on sponsored program time is collected by a commercial research organization. No information is publicly available as to the extent of sustaining program time. It is relatively a small part of total TV program time, in all probability.

[6] *Broadcasting Magazine*, August 22, 1949, p. 44.

[7] "A plan to extend the so-called *Blue Book* standards of radio programming to the field of television has been initiated at staff level at the FCC. The proposal was explored at length last Monday at a meeting of the Broadcasting Committee of the Advisory Council on Federal Reports, which strongly opposed the plan and urged that it be delayed at least two years. The proposal had been referred to the Bureau of the Budget pursuant to established procedures governing issuance of new questionnaires, preparatory to Commission consideration." *Broadcasting Magazine*, September 19, 1949, p. 48.

for their own guidance any "code of ethics."* The content of TV programs is thus governed by the policies of advertisers, stations, and networks, in the absence of both general standards and any review by a public agency.

The effects of TV might well be considered on two levels. In the first place, TV will change the structure of the so-called "mass media" of communication. In the second place, it will have powerful, but as yet not precisely predictable effects on the behavior, attitudes and personalities of the American people, particularly children.

Effects of TV

Let us consider TV's effects on the "mass media." How soon TV will affect your community will depend primarily on where you are. As we have seen, the technical and economic aspects of TV will lead to its concentration in metropolitan areas in the next few years. In rural areas and small towns north of the Mason and Dixon line and east of the Mississippi, TV service will be generously available from the numerous metropolitan areas, and its effects will be like those in the large cities. For the rural and small town population of the remainder of the country, however, radio service will continue to consist for the most part of AM and FM programs. This is the outlook for the next three to five years, with the speed of the changes being affected most by either the continuation of very high levels of employment, or by depressed business conditions. Beyond the next five years, the outlook is for a further extension of TV service to smaller and more remote centers of population, and a corresponding decline in AM radio (with offsetting increases in FM radio in areas where the coverage areas of FM frequency assignments will give it decisive advantages over AM).

In considering the effects of TV (where it is available) on other media, it is important to remember, as one thoughtful industry researcher points out, that "we must not confuse the attention which the infant commands with his future adult role in the family." The many studies showing spectacular effects on the uses of leisure must be interpreted as indicative, but not predictive, of the changes TV will effect. Radio is hardest hit. Almost all (roughly nine out of ten) TV owners listen less to radio because of TV. Average TV viewing is in the order of 4 hours per day — slightly higher than average radio listening for non-TV families. The residual radio listening for TV families appears mostly to consist of news and music. Movies are affected next most severely. While the magnitude of the diversion is estimated differently, numerous studies agree in finding that those who have TV sets attend movies less frequently and that most of the people so affected are young people who formerly went to the movies most frequently. Reading ranks third in the order of activities affected by TV, with the reading of books apparently being affected most, magazines next, and newspapers least.

Apart from its effect on the "mass media," TV significantly affects other important uses of leisure. Negatively affected are conversation and visiting (other than for the purpose of watching TV), phonograph use, legitimate theatres, dining out, attendance at commercial entertainment and recreation outside the home, participation in recreational activities outside the home (sports), and inside the home (hobbies). A significant increase is noted, on the other hand, in the extent to which the home becomes the center for the family and its friends, for the purpose of watching TV.

A discussion of the effects of TV would not be complete without some indication of what the "expert" crystal gazers see. Chairman Coy, of the FCC, says:

*The Television Broadcasters Association announced in October 1948 that "it is not possible or even desirable to attempt at this stage to formulate standards of practice." *Broadcasting*, November 8, 1948, p. 66.

lic relations value of such programs in popularizing the new service and the station in the community is very great. When the infancy of the industry is past, this situation tends to change. Advertisers are then generally willing to buy more time and perhaps *pay* the stations for producing the commercial programs too. Unpalatable as this situation may be, it appears, on the basis of past experience, likely to be repeated in the case of TV. Schools would be well advised therefore to obtain specific commitments as to the future duration of their programs at specific times of the day, before committing extensive resources in such ventures.

School Operation. School systems should consider several possibilities for using a TV system in which they own and control the transmitting end, as well as receivers in the school plant. The first of these is the operation of TV studios connected by wire with receivers in the school plant; this would not entail broadcasting the programs to the general public, except by relay through a commercial TV station. The second is the actual operation of a TV station by the school system.

The first of these alternatives, the wired, or "closed circuit" TV system, has many advantages of cost and utility over either the cooperative or the full station operation. Technically, it would consist of studios (with TV cameras, film equipment, and a master receiver for the pickup of TV programs from commercial stations), control equipment, a wiring system connecting studios and receivers (which may be either built or rented from the telephone company), and the receivers themselves. By the addition of a micro-wave transmitter, school programs could be supplied on occasion to commercial TV stations and from there broadcast to the general viewing public. Recent industry data indicate that such an installation with classroom receivers in 20 rooms in each of 5 schools could be installed now for a total cost of about $100,000, exclusive of the rental of the wire circuits. The receivers covered in this estimate are conventional home-type receivers; not the large screen size most useful in classrooms. To the investment represented above, of course, would be added the operating costs of programming the station, for which perhaps more than $100,000 should be allowed.

The wired system is thus more costly than the cooperative system, but considerably cheaper than the TV broadcast station. It has one important additional advantage as compared with the TV station: the fact that it requires no frequency assignment and hence may be installed in a city where all TV frequencies are already taken up. Its principal disadvantage is the fact that its assured audience is limited to the schools in which it is installed; for access to the general viewing audience it is dependent on the program plans of the commercial TV stations, and on the use of the necessary relay equipment.

In urging careful consideration of the possibilities of the wired system, one is raising the issue of the pedagogic value of TV as against other instructional techniques. It should be noted, therefore, that it is not yet possible to compare precisely the effectiveness of communicating a given item of information to the same person by means of TV, aural radio, motion pictures, film strips, and by lectures, discussions, etc., in congregate assembly. Educational media range from chalk and blackboard to TV. Most of these media have proven their educational value for specific purposes. As the report of the Seminar on Educational Broadcasting put it:

> The issue of when and where TV, facsimile, and FM are added to, replace or implement existing facilities must resolve itself into a calculation of the advantages of the new installation as against its cost. In principle, the choice should be of that medium or combination of media which best fits (a) the size and character and needs of the audience, (b) the character and quantity of material to be com-

municated, and (c) the skills and plan of the broadcaster.[14]

his issue of methods, naturally, must be settled cally. The point here is merely to urge that the hoice be made consciously and after fair eval- ation of the alternative techniques.

The second alternative method of school peration is to get one's own TV station. This osts a lot. And major changes in school system udgets, such as would be represented by an nvestment of perhaps $500,000 and the as- umption of operating expenses of perhaps 100,000 a year, come slowly—painfully slow- . In favor of beginning now to make plans nd get a budget for a TV station, it may be oted that the available TV frequencies will be ccupied by commercial stations in the near uture except to the extent that educational in- titutions make their needs for such frequencies ffectively known to the FCC in the immediate uture. The frequency problem will be particu- arly acute in the case of large metropolitan reas where frequencies are most in demand nd where school systems may be expected to ave greater budget possibilities for entering TV. So a school system which ever wants to get nto TV station operation should hurry. But hould schools want to? The evaluation of TV's importance in relation to the local in-school program will provide part of the answer. But a TV station makes available to the school system the general viewer as well. The present im- maturity of the art of TV programming should not blind us to the possibility that techniques may develop which will realize the potential effectiveness of a combination of the aural *plus* the visual, *plus* the time (simul- taneity) features of TV. Such techniques *may* give TV an efficiency far greater than that of other media. But whatever the inherent ef- ficiency of TV in communication (in compari- son with other in-school techniques), the sheer bulk of TV-viewing which will be done by some 38 million American families by some date within the next fifteen years will give it a pre- eminent force in imparting information and building attitudes. An average of four hours of viewing a day for so many families will repre- sent an educational opportunity for the com- municators which our school systems should not lightly fail to seize. The importance to the school system of having its own station, of course, lies in the independence and freedom to experiment with program types best suited to in-and out-of-school listening. Both the TV sta- tion system and the wired TV system will be attractive because of the assurance of continuity in operation which is so essential to fundamen- tal educational policy execution.

For those institutions which are interested but wary of the cost aspects, information on costs and all other aspects of operation of TV by an educational institution may be obtained from Iowa State College of Agriculture, where a TV station is now being built and will begin telecasting early in 1950.

Educational Policy Implications

The prospect of 38 million American fam- ilies all spending an average of four hours a day watching TV impresses one with the power of TV. Here is a tool comparable only to the inven- tion of printing in its power to inform and to in- fluence. And printing itself, it will be remem- bered, contributed substantially to the over- throw of feudalism and the rise of the modern national state.

Printing, however, was and even yet largely is a tool suited to small-scale use. TV's power is rendered more impressive by the fact that the number of TV stations is severely limited by their high cost and by engineering factors. Nor is this the full measure of the power of TV. For the privilege of producing TV for the 38 million American families will be largely con- centrated in the hands of those able to make profitable use of the four national networks on

[14] Institute of Communications Research, Uni- versity of Illinois, "Educational Broadcasting — Its Aims and Responsibilities," July 1949, p. 16 (mimeo.).

which individual TV stations will be forced by the economics of their operations to depend for the bulk of their programs. These program producers and those able to buy the time of individual TV stations will be groups able to afford the high price of the production talent capable of mastering the techniques of programming the new art.

With power goes responsibility. And the great concentrated power of TV alters the kind and degree of responsibility for all social institutions. The nature of the change in this responsibility is suggested by the following excerpt from a report by the Royal Bank of Canada:

> Our brains are buzzing more than the brains of men ever buzzed before, and the scale of events around us has assumed a gigantic size. The buffer area between individuals and between nations has shrunk, every man feels called upon to react to the total environment and to every incident that affects his neighbours at the far side of the earth.
>
> The radio (and TV) enters this picture as an additional complicating force, because it distorts further our picture of the world by diminishing our opportunity to select and isolate the things to which we shall give attention. We grow accustomed to the weirdest of juxtapositions: the serious and the trivial, the comic and the tragic... Here is a collapse of values, a fantasia of effects that resembles the debris left by a storm.
>
> We do not blame radio for it all, because much of our inability to comprehend is caused by failure of our mental capacity to keep up with our physical progress, but we do, surely, need all the help radio can give toward simplifying for us the chaos to which it, itself, contributes so much.
> One way of assistance might be by placing emphasis upon the facts which underlie the problems of the day. Another effort might be directed toward raising standards of criticism and choice.[15]

A mere generation ago, the introduction of the automobile produced dislocations in our way of life for which the schools were ill-p pared, until after the fact. With motion pictu and aural radio, we did better, but still not w enough. Now, on top of these major chan in methods of communications, we are asked assimilate the implications of TV.

Just as the printing press foreshadowed transition from feudalism to the modern st the present issue is, What kind of world v be born through the mid-wifery of our n and more powerful communications tools? V have observed how aural radio served the fas revolution in Nazi Germany and in Italy. So is that there is a growing apprehension that T may be misused, and a growing feeling tha new national policy for its use needs to be veloped.[16]

Specifically, how does TV affect schools? Most directly, it will send to the scho room children whose out-of-school time is sp more in passive TV-viewing, and less in acti play, recreation out of the home, conversati reading, and hobbies. To the extent that ch maturation is now aided by active play whether games, or in "make-believe" soc drama in which the child is working out own socialized personality — the schools w need to compensate for the lack of su activity by the children who spend hours e day before the TV set. The range of effects what the child does see on TV is another fac for the schools' consideration.

> Television at its best in the homes p vides stimulating, clean entertainment children, keeps them out of troul broadens their thinking, and brings them such events as the presidential augural, which they would otherwise

[15]The Royal Bank of Canada, "Monthly Lett *Radio and Society*, July 1949. Montreal, Cana

[16]See Smith, Bernard B., "Television: Th Ought to be a Law," *Harper's*, September 19 p. 34-42; Shouse, James D., "Certain Social Economic Implications of Television," an dress at the Boston Conference on Distributi Boston, October 10, 1949.

unable to see.

> At its worst television can occupy them for hours, harming their eyes, causing them to lose needed exercise, exposing them to crime, passion, brutality, vulgarity, and bringing on nightmares.[17]

A much more subtle and complicated problem is presented to the schools when TV is looked at in its relation to the decision-making process. It may be taken as axiomatic that one purpose of the schools is to aid the pupils in growing into adults capable of *reasonable* decision-making—for themselves as individuals, as members of the family group, as members of various community organizations, as citizens of their state and their country, and as members of the human race common to all countries. The dangerous potential of TV in this connection, of course, is the exposure of its viewers to the "engineering of their consent." Attitudes on every conceivable problem will be powerfully influenced, intentionally or not, by what is seen on the TV set, especially by entertainment programs. Already, of course, those with the resources necessary to use the mass media for extensive "campaigns" effectively do influence public opinion." The techniques of "public relations" within the next five to fifteen years may mature into reliable, efficient methods for engineering popular "consent" according to the interests of those able to command the use of the necessary means of communications—whatever the identity of these persons or institutions.

What can the schools do about it? They can orient their pupils toward the real world we live in to a greater degree than is now done. A conspicuous opportunity lies before teachers in the humanities, especially in the field of English. Our curricula in these fields are heavily weighted with literature—prose and poetry —and with drama. But our population, once it leaves school, pays precious little attention to such material. Instead, we find that reading rates low on all studies of how people spend their leisure time. And by a wide margin, "listening to the radio" wins first place as the most popular form of recreation in a nation-wide study in March 1949.[18] In terms of hours, average radio listening exceeds magazine reading in the order of 10 to 1. It exceeds newspaper reading by a very wide but flexible margin (depending on the city). It exceeds book-reading even more than it does magazines. The "literature" and "drama" of our present culture are thus predominantly composed of what is heard over the radio (and to a lesser degree what is seen in movies and read in magazines and newspapers). Increasingly our "literature" and "drama" will grow to consist of what is seen over TV.

The schools of our democracy have the obligation to serve its needs. In the field of English these needs are for the development and practice of standards of criticism as applied to the popular "literature." This is not the occasion for a discussion of what such standards should be. Knowledge and experience in criticism of art forms already exists which may be adapted. The objectives are simple. Selective use of the media should be encouraged, based ultimately on respect for the dignity of man. And the pupils should be encouraged to make known to the stations (or movie makers or publishers) their considered judgments on the program fare they are offered. They should learn their rights and responsibilities toward TV (and radio generally) in their capacities as future citizens and co-owners of the radio channels which they through their federal agencies license to private persons for use in the "public interest, convenience and necessity." It goes without saying that before they can teach such things, teachers should practice such rights and responsibilities themselves.

[17] *Chicago Daily News,* September 30, 1949, p. 20.

[18] Elmo Roper poll, reported in *Fortune,* March, 1949, p. 43.

Recorded Sound Aids

PAT KILLGALLON[1]

The modern world demands new standards of efficiency in the fundamental skills of communication. The critical importance of this fact can scarcely be overstated.

In the past, communication has with difficulty kept pace with the growing demands made upon it by social evolution. The resulting chronic maladjustment has now reached the dimensions of a crisis. Despite the remarkable contribution of science to the rapid transmission and appeal, it is a fair question whether modern man will succeed in understanding his world and his neighbors well enough and quickly enough to escape disaster. His struggle to understand has become a race between communication and disaster.[2]

A large share of the responsibility for meeting these urgent demands must, naturally, be accepted by the language arts teacher. No teacher has greater need, therefore, for the best possible tools of instruction than he. For him, nothing less than full exploitation of every available resource will do.

Few, if any, instructional aids have greater potential value for the English teacher than the sound recording and the sound recorder. They can be helpful in furthering most of her objectives and can be made to contribute in unique fashion to learning activities of nearly every sort. The present discussion reviews recent developments in the field, summarizes research, and suggests some classroom applications.

Clearly enough, listening to recordings has become an important life-activity of school-age America. It presents new needs for guidance and presents a new opportunity to forge a bond between life in the classroom and the world outside.

Some Recent Developments

Interest in recordings has been a spectacular post-war phenomenon. An apparently unlimited demand has spurred production to tremendo proportions. Numerous new producers have a peared, many of them specializing in recordin for children.

Technical improvements have been ma in the recording process; discs of plastic light, flexible, unbreakable, less noisy, have be developed; Victor has introduced a new micr groove recording playing at 45 r. p. m., C lumbia's new type plays at 33 1/3 r. p. m., a playbacks which will play both in addition the 16-inch, 78 r. p. m. recordings are n available.

Children now constitute a substantial p of the total consumer market. Millions of cordings are made for them each year. Phon graphs have been designed specifically for th use; several record-of-the-month clubs ha sprung into existence and several comprehe sive guides have been published to help p ents and teachers deal intelligently with the d ficult problems of selection.

Certain other developments should do mu toward stimulating the classroom use of cordings, also. Libraries in increasing numb are assuming responsibility for collecting, eva ating, and circulating recordings. Textbo publishers have begun to recognize the educ tional potentialities of recordings. Recordin to accompany a series of basal readers are bei prepared; the American Book Company a Decca are collaborating in distributing and p viding teaching guides for a selected list of i structional recordings.

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[2]Yeager, W. Hayes, and Utterback, William "Foreword," *The Annals of the American cademy of Political and Social Science*. CC vii, March, 1947.

This reawakening of interest in the educational possibilities of recordings has been paralleled and perhaps outstripped by developments in the field of instantaneous sound recording.

A new teaching aid in the form of the magnetic recorder has appeared with unique features offering exciting possibilities for many and diversified classroom uses. For, although instantaneous recording on discs has been utilized by schools for some twenty years, magnetic recording possesses advantages which promise to extend the use of sound recording greatly.

In its present stage of development the magnetic recorder offers the teacher simplicity of operation, long playing time, and a recording medium which is editable, erasable, and reusable.

A detailed analysis of the advantages and limitations of disc, wire, and tape recorders is beyond the scope of this discussion. Several excellent analyses are available in the literature (2) (11) (26). Intensive research has resulted in several recent developments which may well be mentioned here.

Tape and wire machines are now available which are sturdy, compact, portable, and relatively inexpensive. A high degree of tonal fidelity and freedom from maintenance difficulties, however, are still expensive (11). Uninterrupted recording and playing time has been steadily increased from 3 or 4 minutes just a few short years ago (18) to 4 hours or even longer. Most school machines permit an hour of continuous recording. Combinations of tape and disk, wire, or tape recorders with built-in radios or radio-phonographs are available. The new micro-groove recording techniques have increased recording time for the disk recorder, also. It is now possible to record a 40 minute program on a 16 inch disc, and equipment for converting the school's present disc recorder to microgroove is readily obtainable (10).

According to Kemp (9), 44 firms were licensed to produce wire recorders in 1948 and the number of wire recorders in use by the end of that year was expected to reach 400,000. He anticipates the production of educational and entertainment recordings on wire in the near future and foresees the possibility of pupils securing their homework from libraries circulating magnetic recordings to be played over their home radios.

Similar, and probably greater, activity is in progress in the tape recorder field. "Audio Record" provides a comprehensive listing with descriptive information and specifications, and comments:

> If the number of tape recorders on the market can be considered as an index of the growth of tape recording, this method of sound reproduction certainly has a bright future ahead. For there are literally dozens of models already in production, and new ones are making their appearance almost daily.[3]

A Summary of Research

Radio and recordings hold most of their educational values in common. The results of research on the effectivness of either are in general mutually applicable. Despite small differences in techniques of utilization, basic principles of learning and of instruction apply to each with equal force. The present summary has necessarily been restricted to a consideration of research dealing specifically with recordings. The fact that results of research in radio education have many implications for recordings is fully acknowledged.

Research on recordings as instructional aids has been neither extensive nor conclusive. Most of the information concerning it may be found in the reviews by Reid and Day (19) and Stenius (24), and in the textbook on radio education by Woelfel and Tyler (28). These reviewers agree that much of the research in the field of audio education has dealt with

[3]Audio Record, 5:1, August-September, 1949.

insignificant problems, that expermental studies have frequently been faulty in design and execution, and that results are often inconsistent and contradictory.

Despite the validity of these criticisms it it is possible to marshal considerable research support for the value of recordings in achieving desirable learning outcomes of several types. In no case, it must be admitted, is the evidence conclusive.

There is little doubt that recordings can be used to impart factual information. Carpenter (3) listed the acquisition of facts in science and improved skill in applying the scientific method as outcomes of his study; Rulon (20) reported that reading the typescript of a play proved superior to listening to the recorded version in immediate gains in factual knowledge. After a week, however, the listening group retained a higher percentage of what they had learned.

The effect of recordings on pupil interests and attitudes has been less clearly demonstrated. Miles (14) found an intensification of specific interests through use of supplementary science recordings but noted a concurrent narrowing of the range of interests. Lowdermilk (12) used printed scripts and recordings to compare the influence of reading, of listening, and of reading while listening on pupil attitudes toward freedom of speech and the right of assembly. Reading proved superior to listening, but reading and listening was shown to be superior to each of the other procedures. Rulon (23), too, obtained slight changes in attitude through recordings.

Nickerson (15) and Ginsberg (6) investigated the value of recordings in teaching Shakespearean drama. The Orson Welles—Mercury Theatre recordings were used in each study. In each case favorable results in terms of increased appreciation and understanding were reported.

Rulon (22) compared recordings with printed material to determine their ability to stimulate further study. He concluded that recordings have little value for this purpose. Several other investigators (1) (3) (7) have reported opposite results.

The relative effectiveness of recorded and live broadcasts was investigated by Wrightstone (29). No differences in their effect upon learning were found. Bathhurst (1) used especially prepared recordings in nature study, English, and social science in New York state rural schools. The recordings were judged to have aroused interest, stimulated activities and improved thinking and listening abilities. Bathhurst observed too that the recordings seemed just as real, just as personal as radio and that breaking the program to turn the recordings was apparently not an important disadvantage. She stressed the important advantage to teachers of one-room schools with their heterogeneous groups of pre-auditing the programs before presentation. Repeatability was considered very important also for slower learners and for absentees. Lowdermilk (13) concurred in finding recordings superior to live broadcasts in these respects.

Few definite generalizations regarding the effectiveness of recording for instructional purposes can be drawn from the results of basic research. Any conclusions derived must be considered tentative. Partly, this is due to the paucity and character of the studies. In part, however, it springs from the fact that the effectiveness of a tool is largely a function of the skill of the user, the purpose for which it is used, and the total situation surrounding its use. It would be surprising, indeed, if the results of efforts to appraise its effectiveness were not at times inconsistent.

Classroom Applications

The recording and the sound recorder together can be a veritable Aladdin's lamp for the modern teacher of English. The resources of

radio and of recording libraries are made available to his summons. They come to him in a form which is inherently interesting to his pupils, and flexible and convenient for him.

The dramatic qualities of recordings warm the emotions and create a strong illusion of reality; thus, the abstract becomes concrete, and facts, personalities, and events come alive. The artistic perfection of a fine professional performance provides guidance through example and becomes a powerful stimulus to emulation. Recording one's own voice taps a universal interest which never wanes and lends strong purpose to oral activities of every kind.

The number of different applications of these fine audio tools which may profitably be made by the language arts teacher is limited only by his ingenuity and imagination. Only a few can be suggested here. Textbooks by Woelfel and Tyler (28), Dale (5), and Willey and Young (27) combine a wealth of helpful suggestions with excellent discussions of principles and methods.

Listening. Whether judged by the criterion of frequency or the criterion of cruciality of great social significance (8), listening is the most important of the language arts. Tyler (25) terms it the number one problem; Dale, Finn, and Hoban (4) declare the "developing of discriminating, critical, listeners—an absolute necessity for the survival of our democracy in the Atomic Age."

Recordings and the recorder seem eminently suited to aid in developing listening comprehension and discrimination. Research shows that the poor listener is ordinarily an inexperienced listener (16). Opportunities to listen to many types of recorded programs for a wide variety of learning purposes is therefore fundamental. Pupils may be taught to formulate goals for listening; to anticipate what may happen or be said next; to make a mental review of points that have been made; and to search for implied meanings occasionally during the listening period. These are all elements established by research as essential to effective listening (16) (25). The recorder may be used to take listening materials of suitable difficulty and appropriate character from the air, or excellent exercise material may be recorded from printed sources.

Discrimination in listening is achieved in the main by helping pupils to develop their own standards and giving them sufficient opportunity to make the application of these standards habitual. Again, the recorder may be used to advantage. Good and poor programs or parts of programs may be taken from the air for direct comparsion, analysis and, later, for practice in application.

Developing critical listening ability, also, begins with the achievement of an awareness on the part of the pupil that he is subject to influences that warp his judgment and frustrate his understanding. The recording of a number of the patent medicine type commercials will provide excellent demonstration material. They seldom claim what they appear to claim. Commercials next may be analyzed for practice in identifying their basic 'appeals'. The techniques and devices of the propagandist are readily illustrated by radio oratory of many kinds and especially good examples may be recorded during political campaigns and preserved for future use. The use of emotion as an intellectual anesthetic may be shown in striking fashion by comparing an address by a scientist with that of a demagogue or "a man with a cause." Prepared exercise material for improving critical reading ability can be recorded and used to advantage occasionally. Finally, since the habit of listening critically should function regardless of what the purpose for listening may be, much may be accomplished by persistently encouraging pupils to evaluate all their listening experiences. The recorder would appear to be an ideal tool

for providing highly valid illustrative materials of current significance in a form which permits repetition for careful analysis and free discussion.

Speaking. Recent evidence suggests that oral English instruction in a majority of classrooms is characterized by unguided practice in which techniques are given primacy over ideas; by lessons in which teachers dominate and pupils are apathetic; and by great dependence upon unapplied, isolated, practice exercises (17). Such conditions warrant the prescription of auditory aids—in large doses.

Recordings may be used to some advantage for improving oral communication skills at every level. Benefits to primary children from experiences with good recordings will be incidental but may be greater than is generally suspected. It is at upper elementary and high school levels, however, that recordings can make their chief contribution.

Here they may be used to motivate instruction in its initial stages, The recorded voices and speeches of the presidents and of other eminent figures of the past or the Abe Lincoln in Illinois recordings will serve admirably. Subsequently recordings may be used to stimulate oral discussion, suggest speech topics, and, of course, to provide examples at every stage. All the forms oral communication may take, all the techniques which skilled speakers employ, all the qualities which make the human voice an unrivalled instrument for transmitting information and manipulating emotions may be illustrated by recordings.

The sound recorder makes its major educational contribution in this area of the curriculum. Its applications are numerous and the accruing educational values in each instance are obvious. A simple listing of a number of applications with a minimum of discussion would appear sufficient for present purposes:

1. Recording pupil speech is an almsure-fire method of enlisting participation oral language activities. Hearing one's ovoice as it actually sounds exerts a stroruniversal, lasting appeal.

2. Giving pupils an opportunity to recoand analyze speech samples at intervals has lobeen a successful method of speech improment. Gross faults in rate, pitch, enunciatipronunciation, etc., are rapidly overcome. Specdefects, of course, are more stubborn.

3. The candid microphone technique uoccasionally on an unsuspecting group is real aid in encouraging careful speech.

4. Recordings of group discussions, forumround-tables, conversation practice, debatstaged interviews, etc., are useful in teaching the respective techniques involved, stiulate high standards of performance, and hoto develop speech consciousness. Comparis with samples taken from radio will aid materially.

5. Simulated broadcasting whenever broacasting facilities are unavailable is almost real as actual broadcasting when the progris recorded and played for an audience. Romotivation is provided for all the related lanuage activities involved in preparing scricasting, rehearsing, and producing.

6. The recorder is rapidly becoming stanard equipment for the dramatic coach. Hearsals are frequently recorded several timbefore the final production, and the recoings are used to improve interpretation, correspeech and voice inadequacies, revise lines amake other desirable changes.

7. Pupils may go into the community attend and record public forums, speechservice club meetings and similar functioMeeting and interviewing visiting celebritiand local community leaders regardless of tpurposes to which the recordings may labe put is clearly a most worthwhile experien

Many other pertinent applications could be mentioned, but it seems unnecessary. The teacher will find opportunities to use the recorder for oral English instruction at every turn. She may well discover, too, that hearing her own voice (perhaps hearing it much too often) may be a revealing educative experience.

Reading. Successful utilization of the recorder in oral remedial reading has been reported (30). Samples were recorded to reveal errors and to demonstrate progress. Recordings furnished examples of good reading. But the effectiveness of either the recorder or of recordings for improving reading skills directly is probably quite limited. Recordings have unquestioned value as a stimulus to reading and they may be used to increase vocabulary. Before children learn to read, their needs for reading may be stimulated, their experiences broadened, and their interests in books developed by listening to the many splendid story recordings now available. Later, recordings may be used preparatory to the reading of new types of stories or of new forms of literature with good effect.

Recordings are best adapted, however, to the task of developing appreciation and understanding of those forms of literature which require oral presentation—poetry and drama. An abundance of superb recordings for these purposes is available. The recorder may render great service by tapping that greatest of all sources of dramatic fare—radio.

Writing. The legitimate functions of audio aids in this area of the language arts may be important though not numerous. Something to write about and real purposes for writing are perennial problems in the English classroom. The sound recorder with its ability to bring to the classroom the important events, the problems and issues, the personalities in the news—in short, the color and drama of life as radio presents it—can be very helpful in stimulating ideas. Recordings, particularly those dealing with the broad social problems of our time can be stimulating too.

When what one writes is destined to be recorded for real or simulated broadcasting, the purpose for writing is real and exacting. And every form of creative writing may be required for broadcasting sooner or later, if the instructor be both wise and subtle.

A List of Sources

Producers and Distributors of Recordings

American Automobile Association
Pennsylvania Avenue at 17th St.
Washington, D. C.

The American Social Hygiene Association
50 West 50th Street
New York, New York

American Dental Association
222 East Superior Street
Chicago 11, Illinois

American Jewish Committee
386 Fourth Avenue
New York 16, New York

American Legion
National Public Relations Radio Branch
Indianapolis, Indiana

Audio-Scriptions
1619 Broadway
New York 19, New York

Bel-Tone Records
8624 Sunset Blvd.
Los Angeles 86, Calif.

Bibletone Records
354 Fourth Avenue
New York 18, New York

Black and White Recording Company, Inc.
4910 Santa Monica Blvd.
Los Angeles, Calif.

Brisacher, Van Norden, and Staff, Inc.
Petroleum Building
Los Angeles, California

Bureau of Health Education
American Medical Association

535 North Dearborn Street
Chicago 10, Illinois

Campus Christian Recording Corporation
1226 E. Eighth St.
Los Angeles 21, Calif.

Capitol Records
Sunset and Vine
Hollywood 28, Calif.

Center for Safety Education
New York University, Washington Square
New York, New York

Children's Productions, Inc.
Box 1313
Palo Alto, California

Columbia Recording Corporation
799 Seventh Avenue
New York, New York

Cosmopolitan Records, Inc.
745 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

Community Chest Records
155 East 44th Street
New York, New York

Commodore Record Co.
136 E. 42nd St.
New York 17, New York

Decca Records, Inc.
50 West 57th Street
New York, New York

Disc Company of America, Inc.
117 W. 46th St.
New York 19, New York

Division of Libraries for Children
American Library Association
520 North Michigan Ave.
Chicago 11, Ill.

Eccles Disc Recordings, Inc.
Pantages Theater Building
Hollywood, California

Educational Recording Service
19-25 North Third Avenue
Phoenix, Arizona

Educational Radio Script and Transcriptio
Exchange
Federal Radio Education Committee
U. S. Office of Education
Washington, D. C.

Educational Recorders, Inc.
171 South Los Robels Avenue
Pasadena, California

Franco-American Audio-Visual Distributio
Center, Inc.
934 Fifth Avenue
New York 21, New York

General Records Company
1600 Broadway
New York, New York

The Gramophone Shop, Inc.
18 West 48th Street
New York, New York

Graphic Educational Productions, Inc.
1106 Lillian Way
Hollywood 38, Calif.

Harry S. Goodman
19 East 53rd St. at Madison Ave.
New York, New York

Harmonia Records Corp.
1328 Broadway
New York 1, New York

Halligan Studios
475 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

Harper & Brothers
49 East 33rd Street
New York, New York

Harvard Film Service
Harvard University
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Horizon Records
521 Fifth Avenue
New York 17, New York

Ideal Pictures Corp.
2408 West 7th Street
Los Angeles 5, California

Institute for Democratic Education
101 Park Avenue
New York, New York

Intercontinental Audio-Video Corp.
44 Horation Street
New York, New York

Institute for Consumer Education
Stephens College
Columbia, Missouri

Keynote Recordings, Inc.
522 Fifth Avenue
New York 18, New York

Language Service Center
18 East 41st Street
New York, New York

Lewellen's Productions
8 South Michigan Avenue
Chicago 3, Illinois

Linguaphone Institute
30 Rockefeller Plaza
New York, New York

C. P. Mac Gregor
729 South Western Avenue
Hollywood, California

Mercury Radio and Television Corp.
228 N. La Salle Street
Chicago 1, Ill.

Musette Publishers, Inc.
113 W. 57th Street
New York 19, New York

Musicraft Records, Inc.
10 West 47th Street
New York, New York

Music You Enjoy, Inc.
420 Lexington Ave.
New York 17, New York

NBC Radio-Recording Division
30 Rockfeller Plaza
New York, New York

New Tools to Learning
280 Madison Ave.
New York 16, New York

National Council of Teachers of English
211 West 68th Street
Chicago 21, Illinois

Pacific Sound Equipment Company
7373 Melrose Avenue
Hollywood, California

Popular Science Publishing Company
Audi-Visual Division
353 Fourth Avenue
New York 10, New York

The Pronunciphone Company
1315 Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois

Radio Arts Guild
Wilmington, Ill.

Radio Transcription Company of America, LTD.
Hollywood Blvd.
Hollywood, California

RCA Manufacturing Company, Inc.
Camden, New Jersey

Simmel-Meservey
321 South Beverly Drive
Beverly Hills, California

Sonora Products, Inc.
730 Fifth Avenue
New York 19, New York

Timely Records, Inc.
123 West 23rd Street
New York, New York

Tone Products Corporation
351 Fourth Avenue
New York 10, New York

Toono, Inc.
1156 Main Street
Hartford, Connecticut

United States Recording Company
1121 Vermont Avenue; N. W.
Washington, D. C.

Vogue Recordings, Inc.
410 Book Bldg.
Detroit, Mich.

Winnant Productions
300 W. 43rd Street
New York 18, New York

World Book Company
Yonkers-on-Hudson
New York, New York

World Broadcasting System, Inc.
711 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

Young People's Records, Inc.
295 Madison Avenue
New York 17, New York

Basic Aids to Selection

1949 *Listing of Educational Recordings for More Effective Learning*
Educational Services
1702 K Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C. (free upon request)

Recordings for School Use, by J. Robert Miles.
Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.
World Book Co., 1942. $1.24.
Several hundred recordings fully described and evaluated.

A Catalogue of Selected Educational Recordings, Recordings Division, New York University, Film Library, Washington Square, New York. $.15.
An excellent selection of recordings for purchase.

Catalog of Radio Recordings, Educational Script and Transcription Exchange Federal Security Agency
U. S. Office of Education
Washington 25, D. C.
Single copies free. Many excellent recorded programs which may be rented.

A Selected List of Sound Recorders
(Only medium-priced models are included. Prices must be considered approximate only)

Tape Recorders

Amplifier Corp. of America
396-398 Broadway, New York 13, New York
Twin-Trax Magnemuse, Model 810B, $285.

Audio Industries
Michigan City, Ind.
Ultratone, Model PT-9, $189.50

Bell Sound Systems, Inc.
1183 Essex Ave.,
Columbus 3, Ohio
Re-Cord-O-Fone, Model RT-50R $189.50

Brush Development Company
3405 Perkins Ave.
Cleveland 14, Ohio
Soundmirror, Model BK-411, $199.50.
Soundmirror, Model BK-414, $229.50.

Mark Simpson Mfg. Co., Inc.
32-28 49th St.,
Long Island City 3, N. Y.
MASCO Model R-3, $218.50.
MASCO Model 375, $189.50.

Pentron Corporation
611 W. Division St.,
Chicago 10, Ill.
The Pentron Astra-Sonic, Model T549, $179.50.

Sound Recorder & Reproducer Corp.
5501 Wayne Avenue
Germantown, Philadelphia 44, Penna.
Magnesonic, $199.50.

Tapetone Manufacturing Corp.
Sales Office: Broadcasting Program Service
1650 Broadway
New York 19, N. Y.
Portable Model, $229.00.

Wilcox-Gay Corporation
Charlotte, Michigan
Portable Tape Disc Recordio, $187.50.

Wire Recorders

Air King Products Company, Inc.
1523 63rd Street
Brooklyn 32, New York
Air King, $139.50

Electronis Sound Engineering Co.
4344-46 Armitage Avenue
Chicago 39, Illinois

Polyphonic Sound, PS179, $210.00
Lafayette-Concord Radio
100 Sixth Avenue
New York 13, New York
Astrasonic, $149.50.
Portable Entertainment Center, $159.50.
Precision Audio Products, Inc.
1133 Broadway
New York 10, New York
Wiremaster, $295.50 (without microphone)
Radio Corp. of America
Camden, New Jersey
RCA Wire Recorder, $195.00.
Wire Recording Corporation of America
76 Varick Street
New York 13, New York
Wireway, $149.50.

Disc Recorders (With Dual Speed Playback)

Allied Radio
833 West Jackson Blvd.
Chicago 7, Illinois
Masco Disc Recorder, $87.92
Lafayette-Concord Radio
100 Sixth Avenue
New York 13, New York
35N 22575, $78.92.
Combination, 35R 22576, $99.95.
Meissner Mfg. Division
Maguire Industries, Inc.
Mt. Carmel, Ill.
Radio-Phono Recorder, $174.50.
Speak-o-phone Recording and Equipment Co.
113 West 60th Street
New York, New York
Speak-o-phone, $112.50
Wilcox-Gay Corp.
Charlotte, Michigan
6A20, $149.50.

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Listening. Doctor's thesis. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1939. 193 pp.

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Motion Pictures

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The motion picture has been described as the most revolutionary instrument introduced into education since the printing press.[2] The printing press did no more than facilitate the wider distribution of a previously established mode of verbal communication, while the motion picture is an entirely *new means* of communication. The superiority of the motion picture over the printed word is partly that it speaks in the present tense rather than in the past, partly that it is so nearly independent of the amount of previous schooling the learner has received, and partly that it has a remarkable ability to overcome the limitations of time, space, and size through the use of animation, time-lapse, cinemicrography, and other motion picture techniques. It is not surprising that teachers and research workers the world over have looked to the motion picture as a powerful new instrument for promoting acceptable patterns of development in children.

Four major areas may be distinguished in studying the potentialities of the motion picture in child development. In the first place, the motion picture can communicate ideas, facts, principles, and concepts to the learner. Secondly, the motion picture can be used in the study and treatment by projective techniques of children's problems of personal adjustment. Thirdly, the motion-picture *medium* can be used as a means of expression by children and adults. Finally, the motion picture is a part of the general culture in and through which the child develops.

In each of the first three areas, the use of the motion picture is "administered" by the teacher; that is, she provides her class with a motion picture which she has selected for some particular purpose, or for some reason she deprives the class of motion pictures. In the fourth area, we recognize that the school is but one of many cultural factors influencing child development in American society. In this instance the motion picture has a bearing upon child development that is beyond the immediate control of the teacher, although there are, as we shall see, some things which can be done about it.

Motion Pictures Communicating Ideas

One of the attributes of growing maturity is familiarity with and an effective understanding of an increasing variety of things, processes, situations, events, and peoples. An important element in promoting wholesome child development is helping the individual to become less naive and provincial. The type of development desired is most likely to occur in an environment that provides rich and diverse experiences. The motion picture has much to recommend it as a supplement to and, sometimes by necessity, as a substitute for the "rich environment."[3] The motion picture can take the child on a very realistic visit to a Chinese family living on a sampan in the Yangtze River. A class in Cody, Wyoming, can see Manhattan by film; and a class in Manhattan can see Old Faithful in the same way. A motion picture can recall winter scenes in June, and can describe with realism the voyages of Columbus. By "compressing time" the motion picture can show

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[2]Zook, George F., in his annual report to the American Council on Education, 1940.

[3]A good film to demonstrate this point is *Bringing the World to the Classroom*, available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois.

in 60 seconds the complete cycle of the various phases of the moon, or the germination of a seed. A film can depict the motions of molecules, the devouring action of phagocytes, or what goes on inside an automobile cylinder.

In the previous paragraph a number of examples of the motion picture as a device for enlarging and enriching experiences were given. These were primarily intellectual experiences, however, with a minimum of emotional appeal, and presumably with relatively little effect in reinforcing or developing attitudes. There are, however, an increasing number of documentary films which, by means of photographic emphasis, dramatic narration, or accenting music and sound effects, can exert influences far more powerful than those offered by other teaching devices upon the emotional development of children.

Evidences of the effectiveness of motion pictures in devloping understandings and in influencing attitudes and opinions have been produced by a number of scientific investigations.[4] Rulon[5], for example, found that motion pictures added about one-fifth to immediate factual learning and nearly two-fifths to delayed recall. Inductive reasoning, too, was shown to be developed by seeing films. Ramseyer,[6] by using motion pictures such as *The River*,[7] produced statistically significant modifications in attitudes that persisted for at least two months.

A by-product of both intellectually stimulating and documentary motion pictures is their contribution to the motivation of other activities that are worthwhile from the standpoint of child development. Unusual interest in language and art activities following film showings in the primary grades have been reported, for example, by the Santa Barbara Schools.[8] A few films, such as *The Safest Way*,[9] have been produced mainly for the purpose of initiating specific types of learning activities.

Films and the Projective Techniques

A fundamental assumption upon which projective techniques are based is that children are likely to reveal their significant inner feelings and reactions in imaginative or make-believe situations. Motion pictures may be useful in this connection in two ways: (a) by providing a realistic situation to which children may react in a revealing fashion, and (b) by depicting social and inter-personal relationships which may have very intimate significance for the children individually, but which can be discussed in a group with a "reasonable facsimile" of personal detachment. Examples of motion pictures which might be employed in projection techniques are *You and Your Family*[10] and *Shy Guy*.[11] The former dramatizes a number of problem situations involving adolescents and their parents. The solutions offered by a child in post-film discussions may add significantly to the teachers' understanding of the child's problems. The adolescent who is having difficulty in adjusting satisfactorily with his parents may benefit from discussing the problem presented

[4]For a comprehensive summary of such investigations consult *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*. (The MacMillan Co.)

[5]Rulon, P. J., *The Sound Motion Picture in Science Teaching*. Howard University Press, 1933.

[6]Ramseyer, L. L., "A Study of the Influence of Documentary Films on Social Attitudes." Doctoral Dissertation, Onio State University, 1938.

[7]Castle Films Division, United World Films, 445 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.

[8]Bell, Reginald, et al, *Motion Pictures in a Modern Curriculum*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

[9]2 reels, sound. American Automobile Association. Washington, 1948.

[10]Association Films, 347 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y.

[11]Coronet Instructional Films, Glenview, Illinois.

in the moving picture, without having to admit to others that such a problem does, in fact, exist for him. At the same time, he may find some comfort in the discovery that others seem to be interested in talking about how to get along with parents, and he may acquire new understandings which will help him to improve his own situation.

The Motion Picture as a Means of Expression

The production of a motion picture that will meet "Hollywood Standards" is an expensive project and one that requires great technical skill. If students and teachers can be led to accept more modest standards, however, the motion picture medium may provide many secondary-school students with a valuable vehicle for self expression. A number of schools which have attempted complete motion picture productions as student learning activities have reported that the experience resulted in valuable growth on the part of the students.[12] Without ever making a complete film, however, such aspects of film production as writing script, scenarios, and story ideas may provide a worthwhile and stimulating way for a student to express himself "in the motion picture medium."

The Motion Picture as a Cultural Force

Every Saturday afternoon, on the average, about 9,000,000 school-age children go to the movies. What they experience at the cinema each week may exert as powerful an influence on the development of their personalities as what they experience in school. Holaday and Stoddard[13] have shown that children in grades 2 and 3 learn from films about 60 per cent of the facts acquired from the same films by superior adults. Peterson and Thurstone[14] have shown that entertainment films change attitudes markedly, at least when the film is on a subject with which the audience has had relatively little first-hand experience. A moment's reflections on the last few motion pictures you have seen may reveal points in the area of child development at which the efforts of the school are in direct conflict with the influence of the motion picture. Fortunately, however, many instances can be cited in which the entertainment film reinforces or contributes to the basic aims of the school.

Perhaps the most fruitful viewpoint for school people to assume with reference to the commercial cinema's influence on child development might be, "utilize the good; neutralize the bad." In order to do either, it is first necessary to know something about the local cinema fare. The reading of discriminating motion picture reviews in current newspapers and magazines can be a helpful supplement and guide to the actual motion picture viewing of the teacher. When the occasion presents itself, then, relevant aspects of current films may be discussed in classes or small groups. Attitudes and opinions that are accepted uncritically by young people in the half-light of the motion-picture theatre tend to pall upon them when subjected to the daytime brilliance of reasoned discussion. Conversely, classroom application may frequently reinforce acceptable ideas that have been gained from the film.

Many schools have organized separate elective courses in photoplay appreciation. Others have included similar study as units in English courses. Such schoolroom activities are likely to promote acceptable patterns of child development when they are focused upon the development of sympathetic understanding of the various elements of motion-picture art rather than upon the setting up of standards for the blanket

[12]See especially Brooke, Floyde, and Herrington, Eugene, *Students Make Motion Pictures.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

[13]Holaday, P. W. and Stoddard, G. D., *Getting Ideas from Movies.* New York: The MacMillan Co., 1934.

[14]Peterson, R. and Thurstone, L. L., *Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children.* New York: The MacMillan Co., 1934.

approval or disapproval of specific motion pictures.

A Look to the Future

Potent as the motion picture is today in the area of child development, more may be expected of it in the future. Film research has tended in the past to test the value of films *as they are*, rather than to promote their improvement by testing the efficacy of various representational and production techniques. Furthermore, experience in film making has heretofore been confined largely to motion-picture technicians, with relatively little participation by teachers and others concerned primarily with promoting child development. It is to be hoped and expected that in the future film production will involve greatly increased cooperation between motion-picture technicians and competent educators.

The motion picture may also be employed as a valuable tool for research in child development. The work of Gesell[12] is a case in point. The University of Chicago has set up facilities for similar use of motion pictures in child study.

Conclusion

The motion picture is a valuable educational tool, unique in its potential contributions to child development, and often powerful in its applications. Although research and experience have established its usefulness in communicating ideas, changing attitudes, stimulating learning, and providing a challenging medium of expression, the full potentials of the motion picture have not yet been realized. Research with regard to the relative effectiveness of various film techniques and an extension of film production experience to a greater number of professional educators should do much to foster fuller utilization of the power of the film.

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[12]Child Development Series, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1939 and following years. It is to be hoped that the motion picture camera will soon become generally used as a means of recording child behavior.